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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXI, NUMBER 4

APRIL, 1940

The Use of Community Resources in Education

WILLIAM H. JOHNSON

Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois

For generations the old style country school house was the center of social life in every American community. Last-day-of-school picnics, spelling bees, and entertainments were all community affairs in which the whole family joined heartily. From such occasions there developed an interrelationship of ideas and a harmonious socialized life for pupils and parents alike.

With the growth of large city school systems came a tendency to restrict school activities to the work of the classroom. Today, however, the schools are not concerned with knowledge alone. Informal activities of both school and community may be so organized and sponsored that they are laboratories for training in citizenship. Participation in such community interests as safety drives, the School Children's Aid Society, and Clean-Up Campaigns, while useful to the community is even more valuable to the school because they afford natural opportunities to teach citizenship. By tying up school activities with the life about them, students gradually become aware of their relationship to the community and are truly prepared for adult life.

Naturally then, it is impossible to consider the value of community resources to the school without taking into account the value of school activities to the community. It is necessary, however, that the school shall be ever conscious of the changing needs

of the community. It must be always on the alert to find ways in which the needs of the children can be best served by projects which will also broaden their horizon to include the community.

Through helping in community projects students learn to assume the responsibility of carrying their purposes to a successful conclusion. They develop new techniques, new skills, new talents. The community groups, too, are delighted to find the school ready to cooperate in a common cause. As a result there is a growing relationship between schools and coordinating community agents; between schools and service organizations. Students are willing to assume larger responsibilities and communities are eager to accept their cooperation. However, increased demands made on the schools need careful analysis to determine which ones the schools are equipped to handle more economically than the home or the community.

The establishment of effective relations between the school and the community is as much an essential factor in the efficiency of the school system as are satisfactory human relations between individuals. It is only through channels of understanding and cooperation that educational policies are adequately interpreted to the public; that home and school are knit together in a partnership of mutual benefit and final satisfaction. Civic programs and fa-

cilities must supplement those of the school in the best interest of youth. Students, too, must of necessity be familiar with the recreational and welfare resources of the community, and the purposes, facilities, and programs of all local organizations. The best reference books for these purposes are: (1) *Social Service Directory*—Chicago, (2) *Educational Events in Chicago*—published for Chicago's educational agencies by the Adult Educational Council of Chicago, (3) *Local Community Fact Book*—1938—prepared for the Chicago Recreation Commission by the University of Chicago Committee—Louis Wirth and Margaret Furez, editors.

All organizations for social purposes are fruitful sources of activity programs which are of great interest to young people. Students may cooperate with committees in preparing book lists for National Book Week. They may furnish material for exhibits, or provide worth while entertainment for their neighborhood. They fill Thanksgiving and Christmas baskets and make thousands of toys in the Industrial Art Laboratories for children less fortunate than themselves. Last year, during Toy Week, school children brought thousands of discarded playthings to school to be collected by the staff of Chicago's Own Christmas Benefit. These toys were repaired and repainted by members of the fire department and were distributed in Christmas packages to the city's needy children. The girls of one high school make a specialty of dressing hundreds of dolls each Christmas to put into such baskets. Schools thus become an integral part of the community and little children as well as their older brothers and sisters learn something of the duties of a good citizen.

Excursions, too, are another invaluable aid in providing first-hand experiences which result in a direct and personal knowledge of the community. Children need these experiences to satisfy their growing interests and their desires to explore life personally, as well as to make them realize their dependency on the outside world. A boy may read about the ice age with the greatest indifference but he cannot be indifferent when he examines glacial scratches and finds glacial drift. In school, a child may listen without enthusiasm to talks on ancient Rome, but a visit to the museum leads him eagerly back through the centuries to the Rome of Caesar.

Excursions also help students to adjust their thinking to actual conditions. The study of industry at first hand makes them realize its importance and provides opportunity to develop vocational interests. Excursions also help students to become responsible members of groups in which they learn to plan and enjoy a trip in terms of group interest as well as of their own.

Visits to public buildings, public utilities, social organizations, cultural and recreation centers, places

of historic interest, police and fire stations, as well as talks and interviews with men and women in many walks of life are all valuable. Trips to banks, telephone exchanges, stores, bus terminals, railway stations, airports, the Stock Exchange, large office buildings, mail order houses, and office equipment salesrooms are often arranged by teachers or students and are of great value in acquainting students with business processes and practices.

However, the effective use of excursions as a preparation for citizenship involves more than merely taking students on trips. Equally important is the preparation for such excursions and the follow up activities which are carried on in the school. A background of knowledge is desirable and proper behavior is necessary. All of this training helps students to live harmoniously and cooperatively in the larger community as well as in the school.

Civic and industrial clubs in the Chicago district bring students into closer contact with the business and professional life of the city by sponsoring excursions to manufacturing plants, public institutions, places of business, and other spots of vital importance in the community.

Since 1934, sixteen tour leaders under the auspices of the WPA Adult Education Program have conducted enthusiastic parties to institutions and areas throughout Chicago, of educational, historical, or general contemporary interest. Many of these tours, which are of interest to high school students of civics, foreign languages, or other subjects, are attended by these young people singly or in groups.

According to voluntary reports from schools in 1939, Chicago Public School children enjoy an astonishingly varied program of excursions.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS EXCURSIONS

EXCURSION	NO. OF SCHOOLS	EXCURSION	NO. OF SCHOOLS
Airport	43	Historic Landmarks	203
Banks	19	Industrial Plants	72
Concerts and Opera	70	Libraries	105
Courts	98	Municipal Buildings	89
Dairies	97	Museums	191
Factories	53	Newspaper Plants	29
Farms	19	Parks & Forest Preserves	76
Field Trips	10	Post Office	82
Fire & Police Stations	99	Stock Yards	143
Flower Shows	132	Stores	121
High Schools	98	Telephone Exchange	143
Theaters	116	Brookfield Zoo and Shedd Aquarium	94

HIGH SCHOOLS

Auto Factories	3	Inter School Visits	9
Banks	12	Municipal Buildings	25
Concerts and Opera	38	Music Festivals	36
Country and Field Trips	3	Stock Yards	19
Courts	9	Stores	7
Factories	16	Theaters	12
Forest Preserves and Park	3	Brookfield Zoo and Shedd Aquarium	19
Flower Shows	24	Historic Sites	34

In the elementary schools, the greatest number of excursions are made to places of historic interest. Visits to landmarks, civic buildings, and museums are frequent in both high and elementary schools. Activity, curiosity, and interest are thus directed toward worth-while purposes while growth takes place in knowledge and appreciation. More high school excursions in Chicago are made to concerts, operas, and music festivals than to any other point of interest. A large number of excursions are definitely planned and organized by the central Department of Music for the high schools while other excursions are left more or less to teachers and principals of individual schools. Next to music, data at hand show that high school science and social study classes use the excursion most often; mathematics and foreign language least often. All high schools report excursions in connection with music, twenty-eight high schools report excursions in connection with science, twenty-four high schools report excursions in connection with social studies, fourteen report excursions in connection with art, nine report excursions in mathematics, and five report excursions in connection with foreign language.

In a few elementary schools the P.T.A. recreation committee arranges and takes entire charge of a series of interesting tours in addition to those planned by teachers and principals. The committee consults with the principal as to dates, places, and grades of pupils to be taken, so that the tours may fit in with the regular course of study. Most of these tours occur on Saturday. In addition to providing a broader social outlook for pupils they also make for a better understanding between home and school. The interest in exploration awakened by excursions often leads to the formation of hiking and travel clubs.

In fact, in one Chicago elementary school a boy has made himself a tour conductor to the pupils of the school. Every Saturday he conducts a group of eight or ten pupils to various museums and other interesting places in the Chicago area. He prepares carefully for each trip by means of catalogs, guide books, and conversations with curators. Parents, teachers, and the community do not need to worry about the future of boys and girls who can make their own holidays interesting and profitable.

Many European countries favor the long excursion lasting several days or weeks. The trips are planned to instill in the pupils a knowledge and love of their country by showing them its beauty and its historical landmarks. Usually these pupils and their teachers stay overnight at low priced and convenient hotels especially prepared for such travelers.

In the United States we have been slow in adopting the prolonged excursion, because of the great extent of our country as well as the tendency of our people to travel with their own families. A beginning has

been made, however, in such cases as the annual springtime trip to Washington, visits at summer camps, and such club trips as the one the Engineering Club of a high school in the northwest side made to the Ford plant at Dearborn, Michigan.

Naturally, in a country of such varied school systems as our own, a carefully planned study will be necessary to determine to what extent it may be advisable to use the long excursion as an integral part of public school education. Most educators feel that a closer acquaintance with the geography of our country, its resources, its historic and literary shrines, its great cities and its industrial achievements, would arouse in our young people boundless pride, love, and reverence for their homeland.

The American Youth Hotel Association, with headquarters at Northfield, Massachusetts has already laid out routes for very inexpensive trips through many parts of the United States. Hotels are listed and many helpful suggestions are made in the handbook of this association. A chain of seventy-five hotels in the New England states which lead from one interesting place to another is listed. As yet, most of the tourists are older students who travel on bicycles, alone, or in small groups. It is possible to visualize in the not so distant future a net-work of hotels from the Atlantic seaboard to Southern California through which our young people may follow the trail of "Westward Ho."

Parent-Teacher Associations are important links between the Chicago schools and the community. Through the influence of their members, these associations lead the community to undertake a continual series of projects helpful to the schools, bringing about neighborhood understanding and a finer neighborhood harmony which more firmly binds together the home, the school, and the community.

The contributions of Parent-Teacher Associations are invaluable. They give lunch money to children who would otherwise go without eating and carfare to others who have no means of getting to school. Because they are familiar with both the school and the community, they are necessary to the fullest functioning of the school. In more favored localities such associations assist in providing stage properties, costumes, and motion picture facilities, as well as improved lunch room equipment. Marked changes in neighborhood conditions, endorsement of beneficial ordinances which otherwise might be overlooked, traffic regulations near the school, and many other improvements are due to the efforts of the Parent-Teacher organizations.

If the school band needs new uniforms and funds are lacking, the principal never appeals to the Parent-Teacher Association in vain. The school band in its turn is a pleasant agent of interpretation between school and community. Principals impress on the

band that they owe a civic duty to the community. In school parades and in certain community affairs these organizations have the responsibility of helping to maintain order as well as to furnish entertainment.

Many Chicago schools recognize the wisdom of having an active Alumni Association. This group is extremely valuable as a means of interpretation between the school and the community since its members are not far removed from life as it is lived at school. They are, therefore, able to see the place of the school in the whole social set-up. Intelligent suggestion on the part of alumni members has been responsible in many cases for beneficial changes in school procedure. Reports from many Chicago schools point to the foresight of principals who can see the fine results in group thinking and planning that a live Alumni Association affords. In several high schools, alumni, students, principals, faculty, and community have formed a Hi-School Community Council which works for neighborhood improvements.

The regularly conducted student assembly program has long been recognized as one of the most satisfactory ways of teaching young people to live together with happiness and satisfaction and of training them for more effective participation in community projects. With principal and teachers in the background, the assembly plays an important part in the development of self-confidence and poise in students. They learn to listen to others, to speak convincingly in public, and to preside at public meetings effectively and without embarrassment. Assemblies of many types are continually presenting excellent demonstrations of class work as well as appeals for student coöperation in school and community. Assemblies and open house programs may provide an invaluable type of Americanization program and a medium for publicity through which the interest and support of the general public may be obtained.

Federal Music Project programs are brought to the auditoriums of all schools and furnish the finest type of music entertainment. These programs have provided entertainment and inspiration to many thousands of children.

Important radio broadcasts and movie programs are often brought to the schools in the assembly period. Safety broadcasts, addresses by the Superintendent of Schools, broadcasts from foreign countries, Damrosch programs in music appreciation, symphony programs under Arturo Toscanini as well as other educational projects are of inestimable value in bringing the outside world to school pupils.

Many moving pictures based rather closely on facts which explain and interpret historical events in heroic fashion are instrumental in conveying historical information to millions of school children. Other

moving pictures such as "David Copperfield" or "The Elephant Boy" are valuable in interpreting literary compositions of proved greatness.

Excellent sound movies by Mayor Kelly's "Keep Chicago Ahead" have been shown in many schools and are still available. The fact that students of today are being taught to evaluate radio broadcasts and movie programs is already beginning to bear fruit in a more critical community attitude toward radio and movies.

All schools enlist the coöperation of prominent local citizens to inject inspiration into student life. Many have called upon the older man—the judge sitting on the local bench, the big league ball player who has "made good," or former pupils who have become famous. Not only do such people set an example to the students but they convince them that one need not go outside his own community to find men and women who are important in the affairs of city and national life. One high school reports that during 1939, thirty-eight speakers prominent in twelve different fields, of literature, the arts, science, and business appeared on the school assembly program. On the other hand, principals and teachers are continually filling speaking engagements before local and national organizations.

The most indispensable community services to the schools are the libraries. The Newberry Library of Literature, the Crerar Library of Science, the Municipal Library in the City Hall, the Art Institute Library, the Field Museum Library, and the library of the Chicago Historical Society all serve students as well as adults.

The Chicago Public Library with its main building and its fifty branches, serves vast numbers of Chicagoans, who take advantage of its reading rooms and its free lending service and who come and go as they please in their pursuit of knowledge, inspiration, or pleasure. The Chicago Public Library works harmoniously with the schools. The main building furnishes space for school exhibits of art, handwork and literary projects and special rooms for children and for teachers. It also sends deposits of books to the libraries of many of our schools. All branch libraries have story hours and make use of many interesting devices to encourage children to read. Practically every child in the school, more than seven years of age, makes continuous use of a library card. In several parts of the city the children's librarian has met with the local Parent-Teacher Associations to study the very vital topic of "Desirable Reading for Adolescent Children." Many mothers have expressed their thanks for the inspiration they have received which has helped them to guide the reading of their teen-aged boys and girls.

Community newspapers, including the school newspaper itself, newspapers from other cities, or

from foreign lands, and the city dailies, are all fruitful sources of information and interest to schools. Announcements of free lectures, radio broadcasts, travel shows, and fashion shows may all be occasions for the best kind of informal teaching. General advertising pages as well as the classified advertisements furnish much interesting material whether used as a means of making students alert to values, or as sources of information for study. Articles on how to dress effectively or suggestions from scientific reports on health and beauty are usable in many classes. The excellent graphs found in the daily papers are valuable teaching tools. The book and magazine sections are particularly useful sources of information for reports in English and Social Science classes.

Newspapers in foreign languages are a very stimulating addition to the material used in foreign language study. In fact, the teacher and students of Polish in one of our high schools regularly contribute articles about their school to a neighborhood Polish paper. All cooperating local and city newspapers print articles on the schools for the information of parents. In some districts, local newspapers visit the school and publish articles about the physical improvements of the buildings or about interesting school activities.

Other organizations which have cooperated with the school by furnishing printed materials are "The Chicago Motor Club," "The National Safety Council," "The Red Cross," and Mayor Kelly's "Keep Chicago Safe" committee. All have supplied free, to each high school, a collection of recently published safety leaflets for library and class room reference. The Chicago Motor Club's *Sportsmanlike Driving Series* is a favorite with high school students. It has been distributed free on request to 400 high schools in Illinois and Indiana.

In all schools, bulletins on safety issued by industrial corporations are brought in by children, who soon become aware that the idea of safety is not confined to school alone.

In any typical school room may be found a wide variety of publications from the United States Office of Education and the Government Printing Office. Some of these publications are free and others are sold at cost of printing and handling. Maps, charts, pictures, film strips, motion picture slides, pamphlets, facsimiles of the Declaration of Independence are all available to teachers who send for them. In all, there are 75,000 different publications in the Government Printing Office. In the office of the Bureau of Education there are 1,100 publications.

Most Chicago public schools have extended their business education department to include extensive interviewing of business executives and contacts with the actual personnel of business offices. This has been made possible through cooperation of local employers. A north side high school has started and partially

completed a survey of all commercial and manufacturing establishments in the school area. Many of the vacancies of these concerns can be filled with graduates of the school or with students who desire part-time employment. While the establishment of such contacts is of great personal value to students, it also does much to help the school and the community see eye to eye.

Procedures observed by children in excursions to traffic courts and various other departments of city government serve as models for student government organizations in which every Chicago pupil from kindergarten through high school takes part either as an official or as a citizen. Out of this pupil participation usually comes a voluntary suggestion for pupil improvement in the school. Many activities of interest to the community as well as to the school are an outgrowth of student government. It is also common experience that these organizations develop a feeling of responsibility toward school and community which trains students to take their places in the community as worthy Americans.

One school reports with much enthusiasm that it has a student committee on public relations which has been working with the recreation committee of the adjacent park. Respect for public property was the theme of discussion throughout the semester. Window breakage received a great deal of attention. A committee was appointed to do research work in ways and means of improving the situation. The park director offered suggestions for bigger and better recreation programs, sponsored by both park and school.

A north side school obtained splendid results in social relationships and respect for public property by inviting the parents of students to a ceremony at which the school received a trophy for having the best school lawn in Chicago. Another high school is carrying on a drive asking property owners in the immediate vicinity, as well as business houses in the neighborhood to cooperate in a campaign for safety in home, safety on the streets, and safety at work.

There is a safety circle of forty-two members in one high school who protect neighboring buildings from vandals by inspiring community pride. Thus our young citizens are trained in the American way.

Experience shows that youth is easily organized if leadership and money are available. The city and the federal government, as well as private organizations, have provided elaborate recreational, cultural, and social programs to interest and train youth. The federal government bureaus are frequently called upon to cooperate with other institutions in planning and conducting athletic and playground activities on a city-wide basis. It always extends its fullest cooperation to all projects in which the children are chief beneficiaries.

Professional baseball leagues and others annually donate thousands of tickets to the patrol boys in order to show them appreciation and recognition of their excellent work. The many municipal bathing beaches, bath houses, playgrounds, and stadia, are also sources of great pleasure and benefit to our children. At the request of school authorities and sometimes of clubs the city blocks off "Play Streets" in congested areas. These streets are closed to traffic by barriers.

Camp Reinber, supported and administered by the Cook County Commissioners, provided a ten day vacation for more than 2,200 guests last year. The United Charities camp at Algonquin provides for family vacations. Plenty of rest, good food, and quiet play keep children and mothers happy while they are becoming acquainted with birds and flowers.

Many interesting free lectures are given in the course of a year by such organizations as the Field Museum, the Chicago Historical Society, the Chicago Academy of Science, and the Art Institute. These lectures are always enthusiastically attended by large groups of interested people. The Field Museum averages a lecture attendance of 25,000 children annually.

The N. W. Harris Public School Extension Department of the Field Museum circulates 1,200 nature study exhibits among the Chicago schools. These exhibits are changed every two weeks. The Chicago Academy of Science operates a free lending service for lantern slides. All of these services do much to help the schools interest pupils in their related school work as well as to provide interesting leisure-time occupation.

Local institutions and clubs are generous in offering scholarships to Chicago school children who are talented in Art or Music. Some of the most noted American artists have received their start from these agencies.

The Art Institute itself awards yearly two competitive *Art Institute Scholarships*. Moreover every Chicago Public School is allowed to send a few gifted children, tuition free, to specially planned classes. Tours, lectures, and certain classes are open to all children.

The Academy of Fine Arts, the Ray School, the Chicago Professional School of Art, and the Frederick Mizen Academy of Art offer several valuable scholarships. The Community Service Committee of the Association of Commerce and the Chicago Women's Club also donate art scholarships each year.

The Civic Music Association organizes children's classes in community singing and gives concerts. Many schools of music award full and partial scholarships to deserving pupils.

The American Legion has been instrumental in helping our students to a better understanding of

true Americanism. The Kiwanis International, under the direction of its committees, has brought greater opportunities of happiness and success to thousands of youths. Handicapped children are aided; picnics, parties, and "Father and Son" nights are held. The Kiwanis Guidance and Placement committee co-operates with all agencies of vocational guidance and are of great help to the public schools.

The Optimist Club has for its motto "Friend of the Boy." Thousands of boys in the junior organization enjoy swimming, track events, baseball, and basket ball, as well as their regular club meeting.

The Rotary Clubs are very helpful in interpreting the public schools to the community. They themselves furnish many hot lunches and do much good outside of the schools in family difficulties.

Recently the Lions International Club has been sponsoring ground training in aviation and flight programs for the air minded. This year and next they will aid in organizing 20 schools in the Chicago area.

The Young Men's Jewish Club and The Boy's Brotherhood Republic are also social and civic organizations to help boys. The Young Men's Jewish Club furnishes technical training in radio, electricity, and photography to any of its 5,000 members who wish to learn a trade. The Boy's Brotherhood Republic helps boys between ten and eighteen years of age. It is one of more than 175 agencies in Chicago to which funds are allocated from the annual drive of the Community Fund.

All of these organizations help students to understand where and how they fit into the social life of the community. Besides their other activities most of these clubs as well as other agencies sponsor essay and oratorical contests on different phases of American history. It is important that these contests be carefully planned to be of interest to the students and of value to the community.

Style shows, demonstrations in home economics, and the like are always available to interest and inspire girl pupils. On the other hand in some high schools, girls have formed organizations to help entertain patients in the women's wards at the County Hospital, while others make useful attractive garments from material furnished by the Salvation Army or the Red Cross. Thus these girls develop the habits and attitudes characteristic of the American way of life.

The high school principals are using the help of public spirited citizens to bring about a closer relationship between the school and the community. For example, every principal has invited eight or nine business men, club leaders, and members of the clergy in the community to work with him in planning the program of the school. In this way outstanding citizens of each neighborhood come to understand what the school is trying to do. These citizens return to the

community with a complete understanding of the needs of the school. In turn, the committee members keep the high school principal informed of the needs of the community and just how the school may meet these needs.

There is also a very strong community interest in adult education. The Superintendent has formed an advisory council. The council assists in setting standards in the appraisal of the program workers, in the creation of wider understanding and appreciation, and in determining long time purposes and goals for the outstanding educational and social activities of adult education in Chicago.

Coöperative relations now exist between school and community which are advantageous to both. In some respects the schools have taken over services which were formerly given only by private philanthropic organizations, such as the education of the crippled, the deaf, the blind, and the anemic. In 1929, the Elks Club formed, with the schools and physicians of Illinois, a joint guardianship for the well-being of crippled children.

Moreover, the school avails itself of numerous public and private facilities to secure as far as possible, the complete physical and mental health of all its children. School health work began in Chicago as a program for the control of contagious diseases many years ago, and has developed into a full-time, well-rounded program.

The school administration has now become familiar with all avenues through which assistance may be secured. Some of these agencies are: The Chicago Relief Administration, the National Youth Administration, the Department of Health, the Bureau of Child Welfare, the Municipal Tuberculosis Sanitarium, the Juvenile Court of Cook County, the Institute for Juvenile Research, the Court of Domestic Relations, the Visiting Nurses' Association, the Children's Memorial Hospital and Dispensary, and the Elizabeth Memorial Fund—for research, education, child welfare, and parents education. Many of these agencies supply bulletins, give lectures, and have reference and loan library collections.

In under-privileged neighborhoods, where many families apply at the school for information about city welfare relief, parents find the principal's office a friendly place where they are properly directed to the district welfare office. In cases where parents are without carfare or telephone, where they do not speak English, or where there are emergencies, principals often clear up difficulties by letter or telephone. It is an opportunity to make parents and children feel that the school is just another home.

Excellent examples of this feeling are found in the activities of the School Children's Aid Society with headquarters at the Dante School. All Chicago public school children are members of this society

and try to contribute at least one cent a year to the society's Annual Thanksgiving Collection. It is the school's opportunity to inculcate in pupils a sense of responsibility and a feeling of good will toward less fortunate children and to translate this sympathy into action. The work of this society has been very efficient in reducing truancy in the Chicago schools. Children who are given clothing and shoes are round-eyed and smiling with happiness when they leave the Dante School carrying carefully fitted clothing which they select themselves.

Last year's collection amounted to over \$92,000. During this period 97,560 garments and 25,654 pairs of shoes were given to children. In addition, the society's sewing committee made 3,634 dresses and cut out 4,000 more, of which 3,373 were completed with the help of various Aid Societies. Students of several high schools, assisted by the local high school council, have made surveys of their own neighborhoods which it is believed will be of real service to the adults who know little about the recreational and medical facilities of the neighborhood. Committees were appointed to investigate all church and welfare activities, to list the offerings of the neighborhood branch library, the parks, and the settlement houses, as well as the medical and dental facilities. After the research was completed the students compiled the material, condensed it, and published it as a Social Service Guide for circulation throughout the neighborhood.

One of the most important welfare agencies since 1889, and one closely bound to the schools is the Juvenile Court. Here a child comes needing society's help, or perhaps a petition is filed in his behalf not on a complaint. The treatment and prevention of child delinquency is making great strides forward as evidenced in the better adaptation of the school system to the needs of individual children as shown by the Montefiore and other special schools and classes in Chicago.

The Montefiore School receives the services of a physician, a dentist, and a nurse furnished by the Department of Health. Every boy has the advantage of a daily visit by the physician. All have the benefit of dental service in a well-equipped office in the building. The school works in close coöperation with the Judge, the probation officers, and the other workers of the Juvenile Court. Every court case is investigated and a complete case history is prepared. The Institute for Juvenile Research grew up in connection with the Juvenile Court about 1900. Its purpose is to study behavior difficulties of children and to prescribe treatment.

The schools, the Juvenile Court, and the Institute of Juvenile Research are working in increasingly close and intelligent coöperation. They are helping hundreds of so-called delinquent boys and girls in

and out of schools by friendly but authoritative assistance.

Thus the schools have accepted the challenge of training young people in the life of the community—a community of citizens with healthy bodies, well-trained minds, and well-rounded personalities. This task cannot be completed by a school system, isolated from the community, working alone. The study of institutions in the local community will awaken interest and respect in the youngest child. Working with

outside organizations, under school auspices, to help children less fortunate than himself will teach him his responsibility in terms of human need and neighborly sharing. Physical and social entertainment so necessary after school will be found in public playgrounds, or athletic fields provided by his community.

It is only by working together, then, that we can build an ever greater educational system, which will in turn produce better citizens, a greater community, and an even greater American nation.

Contemporary Political Thought and Its Implications for Social Studies Teachers

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"As a man thinketh in his own heart, so is he," is just as true today as it was two thousand years ago when it was first given utterance. Because a man's thoughts so vitally affect both what he says and does, it is of the utmost importance that we give much consideration to contemporary political thought. This is an opportune time for the appearance of a new synthesis of our knowledge concerning the teaching of contemporary political thought because, unfortunately, in this age of acknowledged political crises, so many teachers and students are apparently "muddling through" in a half-hearted attempt to understand the significance of present political trends.

"Perhaps no field faces a greater obligation to build a curriculum that reflects current political thought than that of the social studies teacher," says Edgar Bruce Wesley in *The Teaching of the Social Studies*. Mr. Wesley goes on to say that the widespread interest in current affairs causes people to turn to the school for help in developing a more enlightened citizenry. The school relies to a great extent upon the social studies teacher to do the job, because, in the first place, the materials in the social studies field include a wide range of information and interest along this line; and, in the second place, an ever-increasing percentage of school time is being assigned to the social studies.

Since political thought is the basis of the social studies, it is vital that teachers of these subjects understand this much used, but little understood term. We shall cover this topic by making a brief comparison of the predominant types of contemporary political thought, with a necessarily superficial attempt to evaluate each. We must keep constantly in mind the idea that it is principally the social studies teacher's

job to present this material, to interpret it to his students, and to encourage them to use the scientific method of reasoning from the known to unknown.

Let us first take a look at democratic political theory. The schools of a democracy have a major responsibility in making the pupils intelligent concerning this philosophy. Such understanding obviously requires emancipation from the bondage of traditional beliefs and modes of thinking insofar as these rest on a basis of authority. The whole movement of modern civilization, including the development of natural sciences, the social sciences, political and industrial relations, art, and literature, is directly affected by the issue of authoritarianism versus democracy. We cannot emphasize too strongly that the social studies teacher must be extremely careful, in developing this issue, not to attempt to gain recruits for democracy, but to enable his students to make an intelligent evaluation. Nor does this mean that he must be neutral in the interpretation of our racial and social heritage. A teacher who sincerely believes in democracy cannot pretend to be detached and indifferent. He must realize, however, that the very essence of democracy is the stress it places on the importance of keeping intelligence free for the continuous remaking of beliefs. This conception of freedom is held, not primarily in the interest of the teacher, but in the interest of the pupil. After all, the best preparation for citizenship is the free exercise of intelligence.

In attempting to define democracy, we find ourselves in a rather difficult position. There is no short-cut, easy definition that will prove adequate and command our respect for all that the term democracy implies. It is not a new term in any sense of the

word. It is derived from the ancient Greeks and there has been little change in its formal meaning since the fifth century B.C. when Herodotus interpreted democracy to mean the "multitude's rule," or a society in which there is "equality of rights," and the holders of political office "are to be held accountable to the people for what they do while in office."

The theory that man has a right to participate in government was set forth in England as early as the seventeenth century, when John Milton and John Locke were setting the fashion in ideas and ideals. Milton argued that since "all men were naturally born free, the liberty and right of free born man to be governed as to him seems best is undeniable." Locke contended that "to understand political power right we must begin with a recognition of the natural and original freedom of all men to order their actions and dispose of their possessions and persons as they think fit, within the bounds of the laws of nature, without asking leave or depending upon the will of any other man."

Many of the most significant events of modern political theory and history have been widely interpreted as efforts to vindicate the claim that ordinary man has an inherent right to determine the form and personnel of his government. Although it is self-evident that all men are not the same in intelligence, energy, thrift, inventiveness, and perseverance, yet all normal men—just as they have equal rights to life, freedom, and access to the courts of law—have equal rights to a voice in the government, because they have equal stakes in the justice and efficiency of governmental action. Since democratic government has, as its chief end, the well-being of the individual men and women who make up society and, since each individual's well-being ought to count for as much as that of any other individual, a society is properly organized politically to the extent that its constitution and policy tend to promote the interests, conserve the rights, and extend the capacities and opportunities for happiness of the greater number of individuals in the community. Democratic government, more than any other, satisfies these requirements since it is least likely to subordinate the welfare of the majority of the community to that of any part. Democracy *should* mean government by those who have the greatest concern for and the greatest awareness of the people generally. The natural self-interest of human beings is the best security against political action that is oppressive or tolerant of oppression.

The ideal of democracy is primarily concerned with less tangible values—not with democracy's demonstrable benefits in preserving order and security, extending physical comforts, and providing means of education and culture—but with its effects in developing the latent intellectual and spiritual qualities of individuals. John Stuart Mill maintains that

democracy's superior virtue lies in the fact that it calls into activity the intelligence and character of ordinary men and women. Therein lies the challenge for our education program in general and proof of the fact that leading educators are accepting this challenge is to be found in the excellent work now being done by the Education Policies Commission of the National Education Association, by many state and local groups, and by alert teachers everywhere. Quoting from the foreword to *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*: "The democratic way of life establishes the purposes of American education, and the democratic way is being sharply and sometimes successfully challenged at home and abroad. These hard facts make the achievement of democracy through education the most urgent and the most practical problem facing our teaching profession today." The education profession in a democracy, we must remember, is not the tool of a state that prescribes its character. It may stand decisively for the values which it wishes to cherish and preserve.

The road ahead is not an entirely open one, but fortunately, it is one over which it is possible to travel. Undoubtedly, social studies teachers are in an excellent position to lead the way. With their specialized training in economics, political science, sociology, and history, they have a grasp of the problems at hand which no other single group of educators could have. Moreover, in their daily program of instruction, they have almost unlimited opportunities to stress the importance of current political trends and their effect upon our daily lives.

In considering contemporary political thought, we shall next take up the socialist movement. Socialism, in its various forms, is rapidly increasing in significance. The World War and the political, economic, and spiritual debacle that followed, gave new impetus to socialism so that today we find socialistic tendencies in all strata of life and among the predominant political parties of all countries. The generally accepted definition of socialism is government ownership and operation of the instruments of production and distribution. Numerous methods have been proposed by which this can be accomplished.

Karl Marx, founder of scientific socialism, was obviously dominated in his thinking and writing by the clearly pre-conceived purpose of attacking the existing economic and political order. He gave to his followers only the brief and broad outlines of a program in which his primary concern was to show wage earners why they should, and could successfully, unite in overthrowing the prevailing economic order. Although his principles were not new, his appeal to the proletarian class, his call for organized political action by wage earners, and his attempt to relate socialistic practice to historical and economic

theory justify us in terming him the founder of scientific socialism.

The revolutionary socialists have always centered their attention on a classless state which would be, as Ward Morton so aptly expresses it in his excellent article in the June, 1939, issue of the *Southwestern Political Science Quarterly*, "a sort of utopian, democratic anarchy, that could be accomplished only by hatred, bloodshed, destruction, and violence." Such policies would inevitably disqualify their leaders from holding places of respect and leadership would, in the final analysis, result in a state of sheer anarchy. Our whole civilization is being actively and constantly threatened by this group. The chief danger is that they preach a doctrine of destruction, all the while pretending to be pioneers of a better and finer world. They have discarded their original naïve fanaticism for equality of distribution of the material possessions of society in favor of a concerted drive for common ownership of property. "Since a socialist order of society cannot actually exist, unless it be as a fragment of socialism within an economic order, resting otherwise on private property, each step leading toward revolutionary socialism must exhaust itself in the destruction of what already exists," says Ludwig Von Mises in his penetrating analysis of the inherent dangers of revolutionary socialism.

We cannot count on suppressing such a radical group by force or a show of authority, because that would only drive them to cover, and make them more dangerous. We must instead combat their methods of propaganda with a forthright appeal to men's reason. Human society is, after all, an issue of the mind. Social coöperation must first be conceived, then willed, and finally realized in action. It is ideas that make history, and not "material productive forces," as the revolutionary socialists would have us believe. Social studies teachers cannot over-emphasize the fact that revolutionary socialism is a doctrine of destruction. Not one of its theories can withstand scientific criticism and all of its deductions are ill-founded. Its plan for a future social order is contradictory and impracticable. Not only would it fail to make economic life more rational, but it would abolish social coöperation outright. That it would bring about justice is an arbitrary assertion arising from its own resentment and false interpretation of the present social order. The policy of destructionism to which it is openly committed is the policy of the spend-thrift who dissipates his inheritance without any thought for the future. However penetrating its economic criticisms, it cannot withstand the analysis of modern psychology.

Communism, the predominant type of revolutionary socialism, is "the spectre that is still haunting Europe." It is both an ideal and a method. As an ideal, it stands for a society in which all classes have

been abolished as a result of the common ownership of the means of production and distribution. The method advocated for attaining this ideal is a world-wide revolution which will result in the dictatorship of the proletariat.

We must not think of communism as being a new political theory. Even Plato in *The Republic* envisaged a communistic state. Many philosophers from early times have been so oppressed by the social consequence of private ownership of property and the control of the means of production in the hands of a few that they have openly advocated the principles of communism. Before the Industrial Revolution, communistic thought stressed political rather than economic ills. Moral ideals, instead of social methods, received the major emphasis. The Industrial Revolution, by changing the entire mechanism of production, changed the whole social order. Combination was an inevitable result of the new system of production and, with the appearance of combination, the theory of mass action became essential. The individual, regardless of his ideals, interests, and problems, became submerged in the group. This resulted in the rise of class politics and, eventually, in the struggle for power on the part of the proletariat. Karl Marx, in the *Communist Manifesto* dwelt on this class struggle. Lenin, whose authority among contemporary Marxists has never been successfully challenged, also emphasized the class struggle. He insisted that those who recognized only a class struggle were not true Marxists; that they must extend the acceptance of the class struggle to the acceptance of the dictatorship of the proletariat. This is the essential form of the transition from capitalism to communism, and this is just what has taken place in Russia within our lifetime. Lenin's supreme faith in the practical capacity of the communist leaders to seize and hold power has apparently been justified.

Communism in Russia has not been either static or reactionary. Admitted that the soviet regime is an avowed class dictatorship which practices intimidation and terror, there is still something to be said in defense of communism as it exists in Russia today. There is a noticeable fluidity in its social and political forms and a marked trend toward democracy, but certainly not as we in America think of the term. We naturally ask how can democracy be born in a country where no one enjoys freedom of assembly? Is real democracy possible where the individual's immediate interests and rights are completely ignored; where secret arrests and trials appear to be the order of the day? But let us remind ourselves that human rights do not always correspond to civil rights. A Russian communist will tell you that a citizen may have the ballot and live under the protection of a bill of rights, but still be a slave; that

there are many unemployed who would exchange their vote for a permanent job and economic security; that one's person is not really inviolable when he can be conscripted for a war for which he has a complete distaste; that representative legislative bodies do not prevent exploitation, armed conquests, domination of colonial peoples, or the concentration of wealth in the hands of a few; that the major part of a man's life in a capitalistic world is controlled by the dictatorship of his employer; that employers, not content with controlling his individual life, also exercise the decisive influence on his nation's culture, religion, morals, and government.

Social studies teachers, in attempting to teach communism, must insist that their students read widely, think deeply, and discuss intelligently the many phases of communism. They must also point out plainly the inherent dangers and weaknesses of the communistic system. Only by such methods can they maintain the essence of democratic thought and preserve our heritage of American rights, liberties, and freedom.

Fascism, the newest and most menacing form of socialism, is neither original nor a definite political theory. It is, in its very essence, a negative philosophy, always representing in the beginning "the opposition." Arthur Steiner lists these six characteristics as the essentials which must be present in any fascist state:

1. The rejection of democracy.
2. A dictatorial technique.
3. Repression of individual freedom.
4. Repression of organized labor.
5. Intense nationalism.
6. A reactionary perspective.

Fascism, as we think of the term today had its beginnings in Italy, as the political expression of a backward, agrarian, semi-colonial economy. It came into power during a period of world-wide labor militancy, rather than at the end of a decade of despair, as was the case with naziism in Germany. It exploited the frustrated nationalism of a people who "won the war and lost the peace." It was far more pronounced in its revolutionary tendencies than naziism ever was. It capitalized on the wave of radicalism which grew out of post-war economic dislocations and high living costs. When comparative stabilization became apparent, the opportunist fascists shifted their emphasis to the urban and agrarian middle class and posed as the "champions of the people." The goal of both fascist and nazi leadership has always been power. In its achievement, their leaders have been entirely unscrupulous as to the means utilized. They have imprisoned, put to death, or exiled their leading scientists, authors, artists, musicians, journalists, religious leaders,

statesmen, and even many outstanding leaders in their own party. In their drive for complete power and unquestioning obedience, they have retarded their own cultural and spiritual advancement.

In tracing the rise of the nazis to power we find that economic, possibly more than political conditions, caused the German people to accept the nazi regime. The masses in Germany, burdened with a huge debt and living on a pathetically low scale, became disillusioned and desperate. Bordering on anarchy, they accepted fascism because it gave promise of holding together discordant groups, although they were united less by common purposes than by common hatreds and fears. Peasants and large landholders, small shopkeepers and big industrialists, wage-earners, and salaried employees were precariously united by promises and generalities. The Germans' belief in the promises of Marxian Socialism to give them freedom and equality in a classless society had completely collapsed. To escape blank despair, they accepted the nazi miracle which promised to deliver them from their burned-out shell of a social structure by making the *machinery* of their lives the supreme master. "It was not unscrupulous conspiracy nor propaganda that led to the triumph of naziism. The nazis triumphed because nature abhors a vacuum; there was apparently nothing else to fill it," says Peter Drucker in tracing their rise to power. This explains why the masses under nazi rule believe in it against their own better judgment and trust in it in spite of their misgivings. The average German—excepting, of course, many young Germans, who know nothing else—feels a sense of revulsion at the cruel treatment of the Jews; an indescribable panic at the thought of the war; and a bitter resentment of his own low standard of living which he has to accept to make Germany's huge program of rearmament and carrying on a war possible.

The essence of naziism is, of necessity, an attempt to establish a non-economic society. This explains why all nazi economic and social policy centers upon armaments, for the army is the only organism within modern society in which the ranks and authority of command are independent of economic position. All supplementary features of nazi organization have fundamentally the same purpose. It is the most dangerous self-deception of the democracies to underestimate the internal strength and achievements of the non-economic nazi state. It has been highly successful in its attempt to establish a society that is neither socialist nor capitalist. It has, to a remarkable degree, made non-economic social considerations and rewards appear supreme in the eyes of the masses. Contrary to general belief, Drucker insists, it can survive economically. When naziism fails, it will not be due to economic causes but because the mar-

vellously complicated and over-polished machinery which it has created ceases to serve as a satisfactory substitute for real social organization.

Fascism's and naziism's advocacy of hierarchy; of obedience without understanding, which is so destructive of growth; its practices of violence, hatred, cruelty, and death make it the exact antithesis of everything for which democracy stands. In America, we have held to the ideal of the value of the individual from the very foundation of our government. It is difficult, in fact almost impossible, for us to understand the point of view that an individual is a mere cog in the all-powerful machine of the state. In teaching any type of fascist rule, social studies teachers have a huge responsibility. They must point out that political institutions are the reflection of economic forces; that serious economic conditions led to the rise of fascism, and naziism; that their chief weaknesses are their spiritual, moral, and cultural deficiencies.

If we are to escape the threat of foreign "isms" it is obvious that we must take stock of our own short-comings and attempt to prevent the spread of conditions that will give root to such dangerous and undemocratic political doctrines. Students must constantly be reminded of what democracy stands for; how it has been won by coöperative effort; and how important it is that we be alert and well-informed in order to preserve our democratic heritage. We must launch a comprehensive and far-reaching program of defense and offense. Although America is already giving much thought to its material defenses, comparatively little has been done in the direction of moral and spiritual defenses, and the need is *urgent*. We must reaffirm our faith in the democratic ideas, values, and outlooks of our everyday life and our political and social institutions; we must bring economic power under popular control; apply the energies of technology to humane purposes; abolish special privileges; promote toleration, understanding, and brotherhood among races and religions; wage unrelenting war on poverty and human misery; safeguard civil rights and liberties as a priceless heritage; encourage a wider search for real knowledge in all fields; and strive positively for the creation of a civilization of justice, truth, and humanity.

In this ambitious program, organized education must assume the major responsibility. Educators must realize that youth is ambitious, idealistic, and impetuous; that teachers, with their superior training, wisdom, and experience, must guide and direct their students in such a skillful way that they will develop

proper social and civic attitudes. We may well ask are teachers free to direct their students as they think best? Do they dare to express to them their own personal beliefs; to bring up controversial subjects for frank class discussion; to call attention to our economic, social, and civic ills; to point the way to much-needed readjustments? Howard K. Beale in his excellent book *Are American Teachers Free?* gives us much food for thought along this line. He says that "freedom in teaching" is a catchword that Americans hold dear, discuss often, profess to believe in, but do not really understand. Obviously, freedom for the teacher does not mean the same thing as freedom for the citizen. Freedom for the teacher means the right to control the curriculum, scholastic standards, and intellectual objectives of the schools; to teach and speak freely, not as propagandists but as scholars and seekers for the truth, with a clear sense of responsibility for the truth, and a deep sense of the teacher's part in the development of the whole youthful personality; to organize with fellow-teachers for professional growth and advancement. No well-informed person would deny that there are far too many restrictions on the freedom of teachers, or that innumerable forces are at work constantly to undermine what little freedom now exists.

Teachers should feel free to bring up in their classes any vital subject for frank and open discussion; to point out what all the great thinkers have said on the subject; to explode common fallacies and misconceptions connected with their field; to demand that students analyze *why* they think certain things; to insist upon the necessity for minds disciplined by study before expressing too much opinion, and, at long last, if necessary, to express their own opinions frankly and fearlessly. Teachers should be more militant about their personal rights; more professional in their attitude toward each other and toward their work; more progressive in participating in community activities; and far better organized as a professional group. They should at all times take the position that they are the servants of neither majorities nor minorities, but of *truth*. Teachers really serve the public only to the extent that they serve the truth! If the arguments for freedom of any kind are valid, then freedom for teachers is absolutely necessary in a democratic society. Denial of their freedom is taken for granted in a fascist or communistic state, disastrous as it may be, but that freedom in teaching should be either denied or stifled in a democratic state is *unthinkable!*

Teaching the Constitution from Sources

HOMER T. KNIGHT

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A sympathetic understanding of our American heritage is difficult to achieve at the high school level. Juniors and seniors are conscious of their own maturity. They feel that they are beginning to grasp the importance of life. They want to be realistic. They are irritated when their study of American history and government in high school is little more than a repetition of their grade school or junior high school efforts. Source material offers an approach which often helps to generate vitality at the high school level.

This is not a new practice. Most history teachers have their own fields of emphasis in which source material is used. Sometimes it is a diary or a letter that adds human interest. Often it is contemporary material. Whatever the nature of the sources, teachers have long recognized certain values from their use. The writer has observed that pupils *enjoy* dealing with source material. There is something of the *thrill of discovery* in reading from the diary of a national hero. Pupils are flattered to think that they are old enough to deal with the originals. Their study seems more *realistic*. Pupils learn reasons for the disagreement between writers and speakers. An appreciation for the importance of history and the experience of the past often reaches a high level.

The writer devotes six weeks to the study of the Constitution which is included as part of the one year required course in American history at the junior level. The documents used have included plans of union before 1787, the Constitution itself, and decisions of the Supreme Court after 1789. Some of the documents used in the study include the Mayflower Compact, Penn's Plan of Union, Albany Plan of Union, Galloway's Plan of Union, Declaration of Independence, Articles of Confederation, the Constitution of the United States, and Lincoln's First Inaugural Address, 1861. The Supreme Court decisions include: *Chisholm v. Georgia*, 1793, *Marbury v. Madison*, 1803, *McCulloch v. Maryland*, 1819, *Dredd Scott v. Sandford*, 1857, and contemporary documents as well as clippings.

There is no fixed selection of some materials and exclusion of others. Obviously there are more documents available than can be used. Selection is determined by several factors including balance, availability, appropriateness, and ability and maturity of pupils involved. Obviously the material suggested above is not suitable for the slow pupil. The writer is at present searching for material more easily digested.

There are definite reasons for including some of the documents referred to above. In addition, the Virginia Charters are important to indicate the fact that our forefathers placed their trust in written documents from the very beginning. It is both false and dangerous for pupils to think of the Constitution as an original creation of a few supermen in the summer of 1787. These early documents serve as convenient and substantial pegs on which to hang the concept that the Constitution is an ever-growing organic guide for American government, with its roots imbedded deep in three hundred years of experience.

Pupils usually come to high school with a cut and dried conception of the Revolution. The Galloway plan with the necessary interpretation and supplementation by the teacher is revealing to high school pupils. They are impressed by the fact that this attempt at reaching a peaceful and constitutional settlement of the difference between England and the Colonies was defeated by a single vote.

If one is to think of the Constitution as more than a static fundamental law unchanged except for a few amendments, he must become aware of the importance of Supreme Court decisions. Many teachers consider the use of these decisions as distinctly college level procedure. However, the following dialogue, which is a close approximation to a class discussion on the Constitution may indicate possibilities at the high school level:

Teacher: "Have you read any of the newspaper clippings on the Constitution?"

Jim: "Yes, I have a clipping here on a Supreme Court decision."

Teacher: "Tell us about it."

Jim: "Well, it just says that the United States Supreme Court upholds the Washington State Supreme Court on the Minimum Wage Law."

Teacher: "Can anyone give the history of that case?"

Mary: "A woman over in Wenatchee sued a hotel for back wages under the provisions of the Minimum Wage Law. She sued in the State Superior Court and lost her case because the court said the law was unconstitutional. Then her lawyer took the case to the State Supreme Court and it reversed the lower court. The hotel manager appealed the case to the United States Supreme Court and it upheld the State Supreme Court."

Teacher: "Are there any questions about the case?"

Bill: "Yes. Who paid for all that expense? I would think it would have been cheaper for the hotel man to pay the woman and forget about it."

Sam: "The person that loses the case always has to pay the costs."

Teacher: "Yes, but in such cases as this where the constitutionality of a law is involved, other people, vitally interested in the case, often contribute money to pay the court costs."

Helen: "Why doesn't the United States Supreme Court O.K. the laws when they are passed and save all that trouble?"

Jim: "Because that would be unconstitutional."

Teacher: "Why?"

Jim: "Well, just because it would."

Teacher: "Open your books to the Constitution." (Article III was read aloud and explanation was made on each section. The Eleventh Amendment was then read and discussion continued.)

Teacher: "Bob, do you know what that amendment means?"

Bob: "No, I really don't."

Teacher: "Never mind. One of the documents referred to in your reading assignment was the case of *Chisholm v. Georgia*. Who has read that case and obtained some meaning from it?"

Helen: "I have. My father explained it to me. A man by the name of *Chisholm* brought suit against Georgia for some of his inherited property which had been taken during the war. The United States Supreme Court decided in favor of him. Georgia refused to enforce the decision. Its officers didn't even go to the trial."

Sam: "Furthermore, they said they would kill any government man that tried to collect."

Teacher: "When did this happen?"

Helen: "In 1793. Other states objected to the decision too. That is how the Eleventh Amendment happened to be adopted. They fixed the Constitution so that a man in one state couldn't sue the government of another state."

Harry: "That is funny. I know a man from Seattle who had his car smashed by a highway truck in California and he got damages."

Teacher: "Let's read the Eleventh Amendment again."

Helen: (After reading) "Oh, I see what it means. If a man from one state sues another

state, the United States Supreme Court hasn't any power over the case. The state courts would have jurisdiction."

Teacher: "This case of *Chisholm v. Georgia* offers a fine example of the way in which constitutional government operates. We have a government of laws. As long as a law is on the books the courts are bound to decide cases according to the law. The Supreme Court studied the Constitution in this case. They rendered their decision. The people in general didn't approve of the decision. Although they had adopted the Constitution only a few years before, they said in effect, 'We don't want that kind of a Constitution.' You will remember there was a great deal of bitter opposition to the Constitution before it was adopted. However, after the first ten amendments were assured, a majority of the voters were in favor of the Constitution. This Supreme Court decision brought on serious tension. In the years between 1793 and 1798 the believers in constitutional government got busy and secured the passage of the Eleventh Amendment. The first Court crisis under our government was successfully and constitutionally avoided."

By now most of those students have probably forgotten the name *Chisholm*, the date 1793, the contents of the Eleventh Amendment and the provisions of Article III. I don't believe they have forgotten the concept of Constitutional government as an orderly but everchanging process of getting things done. I believe they have a greater respect and appreciation for the Constitution as a result of their study of the original documents. It is true that one cannot hope for enthusiastic use of source materials in every class. However, the documents suggested in this article are not "beyond" many high school pupils. Those which are suitable and available for a study of the Constitution do not contain as much human interest material as others. But if one's objective is the development of an attitude of appreciation rather than a detailed understanding of each document, success is possible. If interest and attention lags, the writer does not persist in the use of the documents. He has found that if his own preparation is not slighted, interest seldom lags. The use of source material does require additional time for preparation, mainly because material is not always available. However, the joy that results from success in the study of such a document as Lincoln's first Inaugural Address and the related discussion on the Supreme Court controversy is worth all that it costs in time and effort. Many teachers will bear witness to this from their own experience.

The International Forum

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TURKISH WOMEN

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Life in Turkey today holds many surprises for women who were adults twenty years ago. For the generation born since the war it has a quality of established routine that is growing rare elsewhere in the world: you are born, you go to the same primary school as your small brother, you belong to the Girl Guides, on national holidays you take part in mass gymnastics in the city stadium, with a brief white uniform and sturdy naked legs. Later on you go to a lycée, you decide on a career and prepare for it. After the proper number of years you are a doctor or a teacher, you fly your own plane or you win your own cases in court. Probably you marry someone who is doing the same kind of work as you are. And so it goes.

The peasant girl's routine has perhaps changed less, for she worked in the past as she does now, and in certain ways her life remained more normal than that of the city girl. But still, there is a difference. In the past one could not afford to shut up a useful field hand in a harem, but one could, and did, marry a field with a field, with no concern for the human parties to the bargain. Marriage was an affair of so many gold bracelets on one side balanced against so many gold coins on the other. Now the peasant girl need not always work in the fields as an unpaid laborer. She can go to a factory in the nearest town, and bring back a pay envelope with her, each Saturday. She meets people more freely than before, and has more to say about the choice of her husband. What is more, the laws protect her and her husband can marry her and nobody else, since polygamy has long since been abolished.

And yet only twenty years ago how different the picture was! Those were the last days of a once mighty empire, and every social class lay stifling under the weight of a rotten regime. The peasant women lived in uncertainty and want. For generations they had never known when their husbands and sons might be called to war, or when the last patch of wheat would have to go to the tax-collector. As for the city women, they had thought at first that the revolution of 1908 would bring them freedom.

But in the years just before the World War, new regulations were introduced concerning the length of women's skirts, and in theaters and restaurants the separation of sexes was rigidly enforced. A woman could not be seen riding in an open carriage with her husband! Turkish women had not always lived in this manner. In the old pre-Islamic days of Turkish life, women and men were free and equal. They shared alike in governing and commanding. In times of war and crisis as in times of peace, women stood beside their husbands in the assemblies. The early Turkish empires were ruled "by grace of the Han and Hatun," the king and queen, who together received foreign envoys and performed other duties of state. The birth of a daughter was a matter of rejoicing and not despair. A mother had rights over her children, and if she became a widow she was their sole guardian and the sole manager of her house.

The Turks migrated westward in the course of time, and in the tenth century accepted Islam for their religion. The route they followed brought them in contact with civilizations in which the position of women was one of inferiority and dishonor. Previous to Islam the Arabs had married an unlimited number of wives—so that the four allowed by the new religion was a limitation to them—and they had buried their infant girls alive. In the great Persian and Byzantine empires women were considered as mere objects of voluptuousness, nothing more than slaves to satisfy man's sensuality. In Persia all idols of evil were represented as female.

The conquest of Byzantium sealed the doom of Turkish women for many centuries to come, for when the victorious Turks marched into Constantinople they found veiled women who lived apart from men in "gynoecia." From the empire that they destroyed the Turks inherited a decayed and corrupt social system. As their own empire grew, the beautiful women of three continents were brought to Constantinople, to the Gates of Happiness, that the conquering warriors might relax in pleasant company when at home. What happened to the free and happy life of early times? Now when a girl was born, she

grew up behind latticed windows, waiting for her father's choice of a husband. She was not allowed to see this husband until after the wedding ceremony. She submitted to the ordeal of being looked over by his women relatives who examined her just as they would a piece of demask or a pound of lamb for shish kebab. Once married, she lived in ignorance and indolence, surrounded by foreign slaves, as often as not sharing her home with one, two or three other wives and perhaps many concubines. Only a few books on ethical subjects were allowed her, for too much book learning was considered sinful for women. Her children, therefore, grew up in ignorance like herself. As far as possible she lived within the house, and when she ventured forth she was dressed from head to foot in ungainly garments that served to disguise her from view. Not even the tip of a finger must be seen.

In exchange for all these cumbersome restrictions, she lived in a state of complete insecurity, for her husband could divorce her without the intervention of law-courts simply by speaking the words, "I divorce you." She was denied the simple pleasures of participating in his life, of going out with him to the theater or to visit friends or on excursions to the countryside. In matters of inheritance her brother always had the advantage over her.

Such was the life of city women in the heyday of the Ottoman Empire. In the country the old Turkish family structure retained many of its characteristics. Women of the masses therefore, were never completely enslaved. They shared in the work to be done, and the veil was with them a convention which in their own villages could often be dispensed with. The Arab traveler, Ibn Batuta, who visited Anatolia in the fourteenth century, wrote of seeing women always in the company of men, apparently somewhat to his surprise:

As to tradeswomen, they too were respected. I saw one of them riding in a carriage drawn by a horse, while three or four servants held her train. She wore a bonnet adorned with jewelry and peacock feathers. The windows of the carriage were open and the woman's face could be seen. Another woman, also escorted by her maids, was exchanging sheep and milk for perfume. The men who accompanied their wives were taken for their servants. The husband was clothed in a sheepskin mantle and wore a similar cap on his head.

In the late nineteenth century conditions for women improved somewhat. It became the fashion to allow them a certain amount of education, and a number of cultured women of letters appeared. With the decline of the wealthy class and the introduction of Western ideas, the practice of polygamy fell off considerably.

Mrs. Ferid Tek, novelist and ambassadress, writes:

Before the Great War, almost all girls of the upper classes received a Western education. Some even went to Europe to study. Custom, however, dictated that their culture should only be a veneer, and that it should not affect the old manner of living, with its veils and barred windows. The question of love was never considered. Naturally the contradiction between education and life made them despondent. I myself knew the last years of that depressing period. They seem to me now as strange as a dream. Could it be that a child of twelve, who no sooner returned from school in Paris than she was veiled? I can still see myself, imprisoned, miserable, in my *charshaf*, the *peche* drawn down over my face. The world from that joyful place of blue sky and brightness that I had known had become a dim twilight. At every step I longed to raise the *peche* so as to breathe and see clearly. My old nurse scolded me gently. What would the neighbors say? On either side of the empty road stood old houses with barred windows. Behind them invisible presences—old women, hangers-on in the great houses, who arrogated to themselves the right to defend the old customs—spied on the street and neighbors. At times they would not hesitate to stop in a main road in order to scold—and with what language?—a girl whose *charshaf* was too close-fitting.

The years of the war blew the veils and then barred windows away as they did the Ottoman Empire. Suddenly, when the guns were heard at Gallipoli, the women came out, ready to do their share, to protect their threatened homes. They nursed the wounded and tended the sick, took care of refugee children, ran schools and offices. The nearer the enemy approached, the greater was their activity. At last the foreign warships lay anchored in the Bosphorus, and the country was invaded on all sides. Then "thousands of *charshafs* were seen everywhere, filling the streets and squares and meeting-places like a flood."

In the days following the armistice, monster meetings took place in Istanbul and elsewhere, to organize resistance. A frequent speaker at such meetings was Halide Edib, already a novelist with an established reputation, who once addressed two hundred thousand men and women in Sultan Ahmed Square while Allied airplanes flew in and out of the minarets above.

In May 1919 Ataturk landed in Anatolia, and the Turkish War of Independence began. Thousands of men and women escaped from Istanbul to the interior, to join in the struggle. Mrs. Ferid Tek writes:

When in 1920 I had to flee from Istanbul to Ankara I took a little boat bound for Inebolu. On the bridge was a crowd of peasants with their wives. They were returning home after having sold their cattle. The Black Sea was as rough as it can be. I was ill and distressed. Suddenly above the sound of the wind and sea rose the music of the popular Kemalist march, proud and joyful. All the farmers were turned into officers, and when we landed at last in Inebolu I saw that the women's boxes held nothing but munitions.

In Ankara, then "a heap of cinders with here and there a modest house of wood and brick," she was to meet Halide Edib and many other women from Istanbul, working day and night for victory. But they were not the only ones—sturdy peasant women from all over the countryside took part in this mass movement for liberty. To this day people point out the spot in Ankara—now nearly the center of the city—where the peasant women from miles around stoned those of their men who, having volunteered for the army, returned in a moment of fear to have their names scratched off the lists. Countless stories are told of the women who carried shells on their shoulders, who took their husbands' and sons' hunting rifles and marched to the front. Note this:

In the year 1921, we were going to Ankara by way of Inebolu. As we were crossing the solitary roads of Anatolia, the silence of the night was suddenly broken by a distant noise. Anyone who was in Anatolia during those days can understand the fear which such a noise could create among travelers in a country where there was no security. It was the creaking of wheels. As a vehicle approached us we saw in it a young girl of twenty, driving a team of two oxen. I shall never forget her brave countenance and her gentle smile as she calmly answered when I asked her where she was going, "To the front." The cart was full of munitions and we now understood why the wheels were making this dreadful noise. The scene filled us with a sense of shame and inferiority. We asked the girl whether she was not afraid to go at midnight on these solitary roads. She shrugged her shoulders and smiled, saying, "What should I fear: the mountains or the roses?" We continued asking, "Have you any relatives fighting?" Upon which she replied, "My father, my brothers and my lover are all gone; the enemy is at hand; why should we wait?"

At last the war was fought and won. Victory was sealed by the Treaty of Lausanne. Out of the ruins of the empire, the Turks built a compact and vigorous republic, and the era of reforms began. Patiently Ataturk began the task of preparing public opinion

for a change in the status of women. He spoke repeatedly of the problem as he traveled over the country. He said in Izmir in 1924:

If you study Islam and Turkish history, you will not find in them any of our present conventions. In Turkish social life, women have never been mentally inferior to men and they are even found to be superior in some cases.

Let us study the situation in our country today. We see two phases, one where women plough the fields with men, and ride to neighboring villages to sell their eggs and hens and corn, and after buying what they need, return to their villages and assist their husbands and brothers in their various occupations. The other, the legendary life behind latticed windows which is spoken of in foreign novels, is undoubtedly due to the influence of the life of the court upon the population at large.

Gentlemen, ignorance is not limited to women in our country, it is universal.

Here are a few last words: our mothers have done their best to educate us. But what we need hereafter are men with a different mentality and culture, and this will only come through future mothers. They are, and will be, the foundations required for the maintenance of the independence and honor of the new Turkish nation.

In 1926, the new Civil Code was enacted. It gave back to Turkish women their last rights and the Turkish family took a new step forward toward rebuilding itself. Polygamy, which had long since become socially unacceptable—as it had always been in the ancient past—was made illegal. Civil marriage became obligatory. Divorce became a matter for the law courts, and the right to demand it was given to women as well as men. The new code also affected the rights of inheritance, recognizing equality between men and women in this respect as in others.

It remained for women to acquire their political rights. Four years after the Civil Code, the Assembly passed a law giving women the right to participate in municipal elections. This gradual unfolding of reform was carefully thought out, to allow both women themselves and public opinion in general to become accustomed to the new scheme of things. Many women were elected to municipal councils and proved themselves conscientious and hardworking citizens. In 1935 the Assembly granted them their full political rights. At the first elections after the new law was passed, seventeen women won seats in Parliament. One is a peasant woman, Sati Kadin, who was first elected to her village council and has several years of experience back of her.

It is little short of amazing to see how quickly and securely women have made a place for themselves in every walk of public life. In its program of expan-

sion and reconstruction Turkey needs trained and intelligent workers and allows no sex restrictions to stand in their way. Every career is open to women who are properly qualified, and more and more

Turkish History. There are hundreds of women doctors scattered through the country. Theirs is perhaps the greatest satisfaction, for they are accepted with unquestioning confidence by thousands who trust



UPPER LEFT, YOUNG NURSES. UPPER RIGHT, A WOMAN DOCTOR. BOTTOM, MASS GYMNASTICS IN THE STADIUM AT ANKARA.

women are. Every year new women judges are appointed to the different circuits, and there are several young women lawyers, of whom one at least has national repute. In 1937, a woman, Professor Afet, vice-president of the Historical Academy, presided with great success over the International Congress of

their lives in their hands.

In a flying school in the outskirts of Ankara, young girls are training for civil aviation. You see them sometimes in their trim uniforms when they come to the movies on Saturday afternoon. One has already won her wings—Sabiha Gokcen, who flew a good-

will tour through the Balkan. Another Turkish woman won the motor races from Ankara to Athens, two years ago.

Young girls are studying dancing, dramatics and singing at the Theater Academy. In the past it was unthinkable that they should appear on the stage, and feminine roles were played by foreign women. Now Turkish girls spin at Marguerite's wheel or lean against Juliet's balcony while their mothers sit in the audience, hoping that the curtain will not go down too soon.

In the factories everywhere thousands of women are employed. In the Ismet Inonu Institute hundreds are learning useful trades, which they will practice in various parts of the country. In laboratories and in offices, women are working normally and without fuss. It has become the natural thing.

And how do the older people react to all this? Some, no doubt, do not know quite what to think. But many have evolved with the times. Listen again to Mrs. Ferid Tek:

In the face of all this change it might be asked,

"What has become of the old Turkish woman, she who scolded us if a *charshaf* was a little too short?" I have just seen her. Under the plane trees by the Bayezid Mosque there is a restaurant, fresh and charming, chiefly frequented by students because it is near the university. This is where yesterday I saw the old woman of my childhood. She wore a discreet black hat, and seated before a dish of kebab, she sympathetically watched the girls at their cheerful luncheon. But I have heard that she does even better than this. On the white sands of Florya, while her sons and daughters and their friends are bathing, she watches them and looks after their children.

The future, of course, belongs to the children, who were born in this era of formidable change without suspecting that the things which seem so natural to them have come about at the cost of much time and effort. Twenty more years of peace, that the little girls of today may develop normally and naturally, and what may they not achieve then?

Building on Rock

W. B. FAHERTY

Campion High School, Prairie du Chien, Wisconsin

Practice in democratic processes receives great stress in American governmental education. Students of today, we hear, will be outstanding citizens of tomorrow in so far as they accustom themselves during their formative years to conduct their activities in a democratic way. True this is—but it can be carried too far.

Our government cannot function for any length of time if all our citizens insist on following their own ideas, especially when they diverge from the straight path of Americanism. Democracy is a discipline, not a debate. Granted that its success depends not on the statesmanship of a single leader, but on the thought and action of each individual citizen, yet it must not be forgotten that this individual thinking and acting cannot be of any type whatsoever; it must be according to correct fundamental principles.

Of what lasting good is it for students to advance their ideas on government if they are imbued with fascistic or communistic doctrines? What possible good can come from a student discussion of the Social Security Act, when the students taking part have no notion of the purpose and duty of government?

A second fault in modern teaching of American government is the overemphasizing of the value of

the democratic form of government. A government is the outgrowth of customs, traditions, education, and mental attitude of a people. For us democracy is supreme. May we always possess it in its full vigor! But the fact that it accords with all our abilities and aspirations does not make it the best type of rule for a nation whose ideas and customs differ from ours. That democracy has failed, or will fail in some countries, is not due to any inherent weakness in democracy or in that particular people, but in the incompatibility of the two. History has shown us that some countries function better with a single ruler. This fact must be insisted upon.

The third evident weakness in modern methods of governmental pedagogy is the overstressing of things of the present. Our courses should not be a five or ten months' laboratory period in which the students dissect and analyze the particular national or local problems of the moment, but it should be a preparation for a life of interested intelligent citizenship. Problems differ as the years speed by. A long study of the New Deal, in a high school course five years ago, is of little aid to the young citizen of today, unless he grasped the principles of government underlying the question during the time he was studying it.

To strike at these three weaknesses I offer the fol-

lowing suggestion. The teacher should drive home certain fundamental facts, which, when given in simple language, are as easily understandable as are the duties of the Department of Interior, or any other regular lesson in civics. The latter information can be looked up at any time, and is not basic; the former is the basis of an intelligent working out of any problem that may arise.

What would I list as some of these fundamental facts? (1) That any form of government can be just and good; that no one type is of itself better than another, but each has its advantages and disadvantages; (2) that a form of government is the outgrowth of the traditions, ideas and customs of a people; and therefore what is good for one may be bad for another; (3) that a government is for the well-being of its citizens, and therefore has certain duties, chiefly: (a) the physical and moral protection

of its people, (b) the creation of necessary public works, which cannot be properly handled by private enterprise, and (c) the intellectual and religious advancement of its people; (4) that the individual has certain rights the state cannot take away; such as, the right to live, to be free, to marry, to practice religion, to work, to enjoy rest and recreation; (5) that the individual has certain duties to the state; such as the duty to support its constitution, to obey its laws, to respect its flag, and to defend it against enemies.

Firmly grasping these fundamental points, a student can discuss intelligently any problem that comes up; he will appreciate, but not overemphasize the benefits of the democratic form of government; he will not only have had practice in the democratic processes, but he will have life ideas, that are the basis of intelligent citizenship.

Let's Work Together

NELLE COULTER and ESTELLE HIGHTOWER

Central High School, Phoenix City and Lee County High School, Auburn, Alabama

With so much discussion of correlation, integration and coördination, there is hardly a teacher who has not "tried his hand" at one or the other. Teachers are willing and even anxious to improve their methods of teaching. Therefore, this or that plan is tried and often the "experiment" gives so much pleasure and satisfaction to both the students and the teacher that the fear arises that other values may have been neglected. After evaluation if one finds that he has been more successful than usual in obtaining the objectives, he is delighted. Thus, there are groups of teachers desiring to work coöperatively in making use of more enjoyable means of teaching which may also bring better results.

For the purpose of setting up different motives for reading and acquiring certain skills, correlation of a unit in senior English and social science was undertaken in the Summer Training School of the Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Auburn). The teachers of the two subjects found that the classes consisted of the same personnel with two or three exceptions. Possibilities of certain correlations were discussed by the teachers in conferences and with the students during class periods. It was discovered that the students wished to use topics that they were studying in social science for material for writing one act plays in English class. It seemed that students who wished to write plays in which they would use information of this type would find it necessary to read more widely on these subjects. Then, after learning a great deal about the subjects, they would have something

to "say" or would find writing easier. Therefore, the English class and the social science class would both gain by such a correlation.

There was no change in the schedule. It was not necessary to combine the English and social science class periods into a double period with both teachers in the room at the same time. This might have proved to be very satisfactory; however, correlation can be carried on under the schedule found in most schools. It is encouraging to know this because many schools find it difficult or impossible to make radical changes in the schedule when the teachers wish to provide for changes in the activities of the pupils.

The class hour for each subject was used largely as a work period so that the members of a group could work together on their play or so that various groups might assist one another in collecting information or the teacher might be consulted when advice or suggestions were needed. Some students needed assistance in the use of the card catalogue or in the use of indexes of books and others needed instructions for using the *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature*. Students found it necessary to take notes and the English teacher gave helpful suggestions for this. Class discussions brought out various viewpoints and furnished an opportunity for students to ask questions. Some of these might be answered by other students or they might find further reading necessary. In other words, there was coöperative working and learning.

(Continued on page 171)

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES

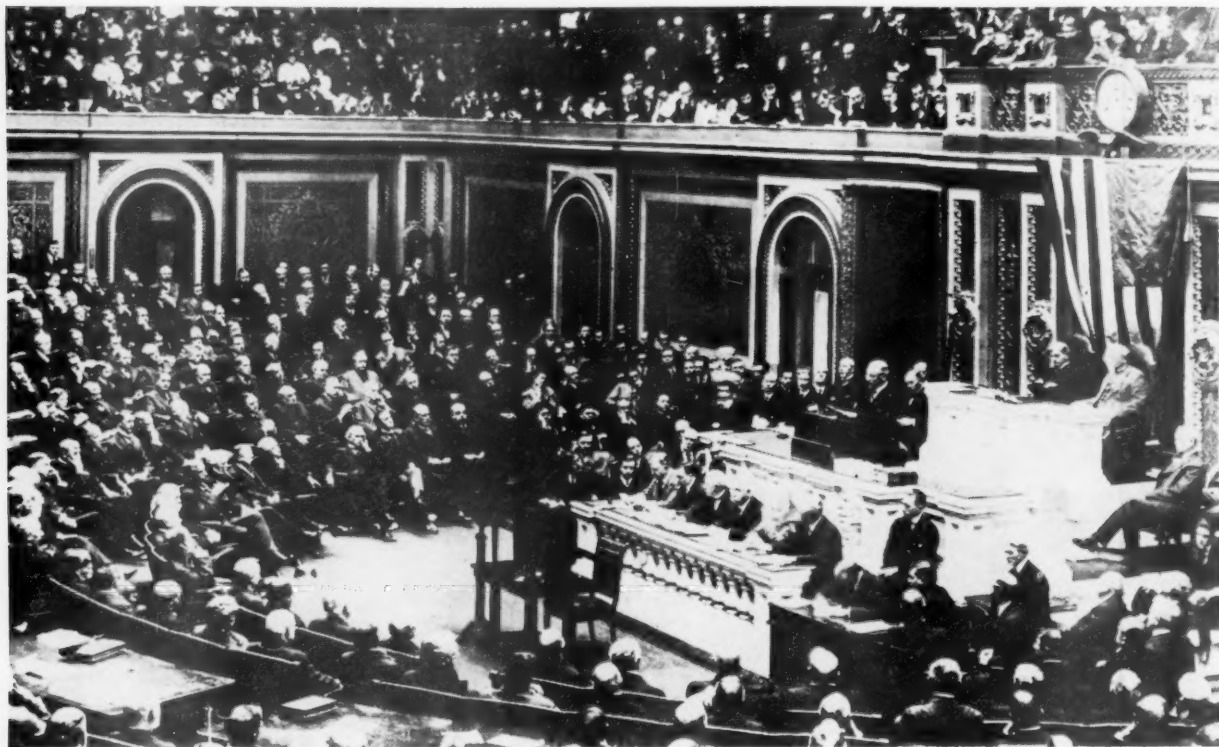
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THE UNITED STATES IN THE WORLD WAR



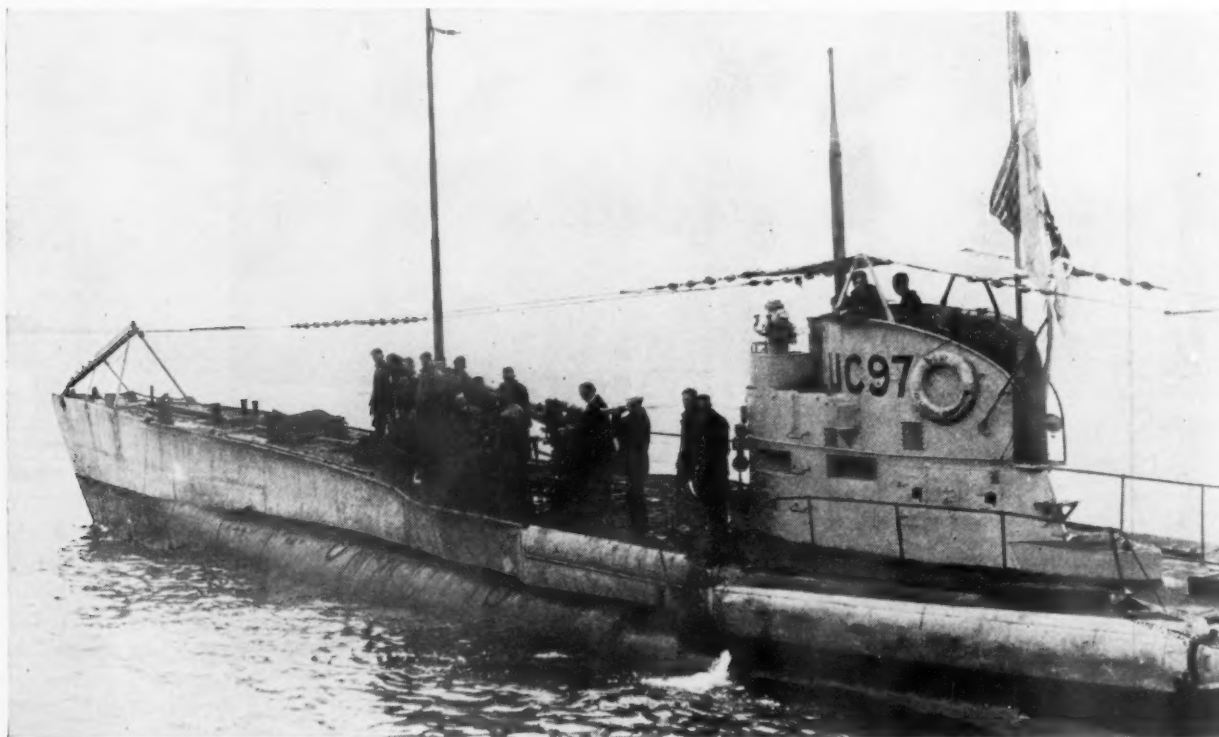
Vast sums of money are required to carry on modern warfare. Not long after entering the World War, the United States was spending over \$1,000,000,000 a month. While taxes were increased and special taxes levied, most of it had to be borrowed. This was done through four issues of Liberty bonds and a fifth loan, after hostilities ceased, called the "Victory Loan." The illustration shows a poster used by the Boy Scouts in promoting the sale of the Third Liberty Loan in 1918.

THE UNITED STATES IN THE WORLD WAR



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President Woodrow Wilson called the Sixty-fifth Congress in special session on April 2, 1917. Before a joint assembly of both houses he read an eloquent war message in which he asked that Congress recognize a state of war between the United States and Germany. On April 4, the war resolution passed the Senate and on April 6, it was adopted by the House.



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One of the chief reasons for the entrance of the United States into the World War was the inauguration of unrestricted submarine warfare by Germany on February 1, 1917. The German submarine UC97 was credited with sinking at least nine Allied vessels during the war.

THE UNITED STATES IN THE WORLD WAR



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Huge quantities of supplies and equipment were sent to France. American army trucks, such as those shown above, were used to transport men and supplies in different parts of France, especially to the war front.



War vessels and merchant vessels were painted in a strange manner to confuse enemy observers. Camouflage was the name given to such disguises. This method was employed not only on sea, but also to hide positions and roads in the war zone on land.

THE UNITED STATES IN THE WORLD WAR



After the World War many attempts were made to aid in preventing a similar catastrophe in the future. The most important of these was the Washington Conference (1921-22), for the limitation of naval armaments and for planning better relations in the area of the Pacific. This picture was taken outside the Pan-American Building in Washington during a recess of the Conference. In the front, left to right: Prince Tokugawa, Japan; Arthur Balfour, Great Britain; Secretary Hughes; Premier Briand, France; Senator Schanzer, Italy. Behind the "big five," left to right: Dr. Sze, China; Dr. Van Karnebeck, Holland; Baron de Cartier, Belgium; Viscount d'Alte, Portugal.

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After the students had read and discussed a number of topics sufficiently, they began writing in their English class. They wrote scenarios on the subjects of their choice. These were read in class so that the writers could profit by suggestions and criticisms of the group. In the light of class discussion, the plays were revised until finally each play was satisfactory.

The topics chosen by the class dealt with problems of poverty such as: farm tenancy, relief, and the interracial situation.

At the close of this unit, the plays were handed to the English teacher and bibliographies of the reading to the social science teacher. As one would expect, the results varied as to importance, significance and interest. The class selected the best play for production. It was presented at a general assembly. Another play was chosen to be published in the school's publication for the summer session. After the play was presented at assembly, students requested that the others be produced, too.

A few excerpts from the plays will indicate what the class did. One dealing with the tenant farmer's problem uses the front porch of a dilapidated farm house for the stage setting. As the scene opens Ma is seated on the steps holding a small child in her arms. She is humming "Old Black Joe." Pa enters excitedly waving a paper.

Pa: (Running across the stage) Ma! Ma! We're gonna' get it!

Ma: What, Pa?

Pa: Some government help.

Ma: How, Pa?

Pa: Through the Farm Security Administration.

Ma: What's that?

Pa: (Pa sits down on the steps) Well . . . Ma, you see it's this way. The government lends people like us money to buy a farm and to build a home. Then they teach us the best ways to run the farm. We pay them back out of the profit we make on our own farm. We have forty years to repay them and only three per cent interest is charged.

Ma: Then I can have a house of my own. A little white house, with green shutters—an' three rooms, so I won't have to cook in the bedroom. Oh! Pa, won't that be wonderful! The rooms will be papered and I can make curtains for 'em—an' rugs—an' bed spreads—an'—an'—just everything.

Pa: Yeah, Ma. An' then, I can have a few acres of my own land.

They continue their conversation planning for a number of things they have always wished for and really needed among which are clothes nice enough to wear to church, better food and medical care. Pa explains that there is a Medical Loan provided by the FSA. And now they may have their sickly child

treated. All is going well until the landlord hears that the son of the tenant farmer is in love with his daughter. The landlord then refuses his aid in negotiating voluntary adjustment with the farmer's creditors. Without the landlord's assistance the debt-burdened farmer is helpless. He must get his creditors to agree to scale down his debt or to revise the interest rates. This seems impossible if his chief creditor opposes him.

Another play has the scene laid in the cabin of a miner. The characters are:

Jed Miller, a miner.

Marthy, Jed's wife.

Mr. Mathews, a communistic organizer.

A sheriff, a typical mountain officer.

Jed: (Enters calling loudly) Marthy! Marthy!

Marthy: (Enters door with a bucket of greens)

What's yo hurry, Jed? I jist been pickin' a few poke-salad greens for yo supper.

Jed: (Sitting in one of the chairs) Wal. Hurry up. We'uns gona have company. Mr. Mathews is a comin' up hyar tonight. (A knock is heard at the door)

Jed: Come in. (Mathews enters)

Marthy: Draw up a char and set a spell.

Mr. Mathews: Thanks, I will. (Sits down) I guess you know what I come for.

Jed: Reckon I do.

Mr. Mathews: You used to make big money at Harlan, didn't you?

Jed: Reckon I did.

Mr. Mathews: You're not making much now, are you, Jed?

Jed: Naw.

Mr. Mathews: You know why, too.

Jed: Them damn furriners.

Marthy: Now, Jed, you shet up.

Mr. Mathews: Mrs. Miller you don't like what they did for you either, do you?

Marthy: Naw, but I ain't a goin' agin no law to do nothin' 'bout it.

Jed: Wal, as I jes' said I had a good job at Harlan but one o' them furriners come to the mine and they give him my job 'cause he done the work cheaper.

Mr. Mathews: What'd you do?

Jed: Wal, I toted a gun for him, but I didn' git a chanct to do nary thing.

Marthy: You shot up a tellin' ya' bisness.

Mr. Mathews: Jed, you ain't safe anywhere today. That's what the organization is for. You've got to protect yourself.

After talking in a manner to arouse Jed's anger against the "furriners," Mr. Mathews tells Jed that the organization has a little job for him to do. Mr. Mathews lays the plans for Jed to shoot one of the leaders opposed to the communistic organization.

In the second scene, the sheriff comes to Jed's cabin. Marthy is told that a man has been murdered. She is alarmed because she realizes that Jed is the guilty man. However, it develops that the loyalty of the mountain people has caused them to "stick by" Jed and they have told the sheriff that Jed Miller saw "that city fellow, Mathews" when he did the shooting. So the sheriff has come for Jed to serve as a witness.

The question of whether or not the activity had been valuable for the students had to be answered. The following evidences of desirable outcomes were observed or measured:

- (1) Greater interest in significant activities particularly of a creative nature. This may have been caused by the students feeling a sense of reality and having a varied means of ex-

pression.

- (2) A desire to read widely on a subject.
- (3) Success in making bibliographies and using source materials.
- (4) A more sympathetic understanding of problems than usual.
- (5) The ability to study independently for accurate knowledge and to work coöperatively on a group project.
- (6) The ability to engage in creative thinking and self-expression.
- (7) A desire to go beyond the traditional activities of English and social science classes and to undertake writing plays and producing them.

The conclusion was drawn that many desirable outcomes may be obtained through correlation.

The Idea of European Federation

BERNARD NOSKIN

Member, New York Bar Association

One of the surprising things in recent months is the sudden and lush growth in Britain of the idea of European federation. Wherever Englishmen reflect on the sort of European order that can possibly replace the Europe of today, and assure to Europe and the world a long if not a lasting peace, they turn to the program of a Federated States of Europe. At any event, that is the impression gathered from a perusal of British periodicals and press reports. It is not astonishing that labor and liberal intellectuals hasten to acclaim the idea of European federation, but even Tory spokesmen pay tribute to it, and it will be remembered that no less a Conservative than Lord Halifax cautiously, it is true, as befits a minister of state, gave it his blessing in a speech before the House of Lords, and more recently, Mr. Chamberlain indicated his support. If so much discussion is a presage of action, then Proudhon who announced: "The twentieth century will open the era of federation," may still rank as a prophet.

In truth, even before the tragic events of September, signs already pointed to the existence, particularly in Britain, of a deep prompting for some new form of international or European order that could master or substitute for the international anarchy which had gathered accelerated momentum since the nazi rise to power. Clarence Streit's book *Union, Now* was published early in 1939 and its welcome was at least warm, if not enthusiastic. Just after its appearance I remember listening to a Town Hall

Meeting of the Air discussion of the book and it struck me that the audience was surprisingly receptive, and, indeed, somewhat unduly impatient with Mr. George E. Sokolsky who officiated as a sort of "advocatus diaboli" on that occasion, though that may well have been on account of Mr. Sokolsky's handling of the opposition. Mr. Streit's proposal, however, was not of a European federation but of a union of democratic countries, not confined to Europe, but including the self-governing commonwealths of the British Empire and the United States.

An appraisal of the possibilities of a federated Europe emerging after the war must not overlook the fact that thus far, at any event, the propaganda for a united Europe appears to be almost limited to Britain, and the island kingdom, for all her connection with Europe is not as intimately a part of Europe as are, say, France, Germany, or Italy. In this respect, the situation is much different from that which prevailed in the 1920's when the main cry for a united Europe came from Germany where that admirable publicist, Count Coudenhove-Kalergi vigorously sought converts for "Pan-Europa," a strictly European federation from which Great Britain, because of her extra-European interests, was to be excluded. It is doubtful whether there is now any widespread sentiment in France for a European federation; on the contrary, it may be surmised that the French have their own notions of the cure for Europe's ills. A union of European states in which Germany would

necessarily enjoy a position of legal equality which, in view of her central geographical situation and her superiority in men and industry, could easily be converted into material predominance, is not one of these.

The dream of a united Europe is not new. Its lengthy history has been lovingly and carefully traced in the work of a Dutch scholar, Jacob ter Meulen, whose two volume book *Der Gedanke der Internationalen Organisation* was written just after the World War, and it is interesting to observe how ever since the thirteenth century, and perhaps earlier, each age brings forth new proponents of the ideal of European union. Down to the sixteenth century there was the feeling that European unity was a fateful necessity if the peril of Islam, especially of Turkish expansion, was to be successfully challenged. This was the theme of the first important recorded proposal of European union penned by a French student of Thomas Aquinas, Pierre Du Bois, a lawyer, who entitled his book *De Recuperatione Terra Sancta*. Two centuries afterward a league of European states and a league covenant uniting Christendom against the Turk was again urged by George Podebrad, the Hussite king of Bohemia.

Turkish expansion in Europe reached its apogee in 1683, when the Turks retreated from the siege of Vienna, but the emphasis had already shifted and publicists were looking about for a juridical base upon which a European order could be constructed, to be valued for its own sake and not simply as a barrier to the Crescent. Europe had experienced a succession of bloody, religious wars. Furthermore, the rise of national states in Europe, their incessant wars for dynastic and national aggrandizement, on the one hand, and for the maintenance of that elusive obstruction, the balance of power, on the other, led philosophers and religious leaders to formulate plans for the organization of Europe. Typical of this trend was the earnest production of the great Quaker, William Penn, "An Essay towards the Present and Future Peace of Europe" (1693), which argued for the calling of "a sovereign or imperial Dyet, parliament or state of Europe, before which sovereign assembly should be brought all differences depending between one sovereign and another. . . ."

Most of the schemes of European organization have been, like Penn's, of pacifist inspiration and have looked to the creation of a council of nations which would either designate an international court or constitute itself as such. The council or the court would hear disputes and issue its judgment. But if one or both of the disputants should refuse to abide by the decree of the international tribunal—what then? This, as we know, is the rock on which all attempts at international organization have foundered. A league that makes no use of sanctions is impotent,

but it is pretty nearly futile to leave sanctions to the voluntary action of the league's members, since every state is reluctant to imperil itself unless an immediate and vital interest is threatened. On the other hand, if the league be endowed with its own army, navy, and air force of which it could avail itself to coerce a recalcitrant—assuming that the technical problems inherent in the creation and disciplining of such a force could be mastered—the league would be, in effect if not in name, a super-state, a revival on a grander scale of the empire of the Caesars.

The other stream flowing into the fountain of international organization is inspired by socialist thought, the ideal of a universal society, thoroughly efficient, no part conflicting with the other, properly standardized by the establishment of a uniform system of weights, measures, coinage, post, etc. It is a conception typical of an extreme if grandiose intellectualist rational criticism of society, and as such makes its appearance throughout the history of socialist propaganda. At any rate, a book published in 1623 by "Em Cr." entitled *Le Nouveau Cynée*, or *The New Cyneas or a Discourse on the Means of Establishing Universal Peace and the Freedom of Commerce for the Entire World*, to give its full title, outlined a bold and comprehensive plan embracing the entire world in an international organization for political and economic coöperation. The book and the name of its author were long forgotten and had to be rediscovered. The author is now known to have been Emeric Crucè, a French contemporary of Grotius. The title derives from the name of Cyneas, a sage counselor at the court of King Pyrrhus.

In general, the pacifist schemes of international organization are political and formal; they envisage no more than a conference of nations or an international court to adjudicate political disputes among sovereign states, while the proposals of socialist inspiration look forward to economic coöperation among the states, or even to the abandonment of national differences altogether in favor of a universal political organ establishing international standards of political, economic, and social action. The genealogy of pacifist internationalism is fairly familiar and can be traced clearly through from Penn to the Abbe de St. Pierre to Kant and in our own day to the League of Nations champions.

In an age of violent religious hatreds and wars, Crucè proposed an international association to embrace not only the Christian nations of Europe, but Mohammedans, Persians, Chinese, and Ethiopians, as well. The entire world was to be gathered into a more perfect union and to be one vast free trade area. "Why should I, a Frenchman," asks Crucè, "desire ill of an Englishman, Spaniard, or an Indian? I cannot when I consider that they are men like me, and that I, like them, am subject to error and sin,

and that all nations are allied by a natural and consequently indissoluble tie."

Crucè wrote in a predominantly mercantilist age and his work appears not to have met with much response. Two centuries later, a similar ideal, restricted however to Europe was adumbrated by St. Simon in a brochure published jointly with the future historian, A Thierry. *De la Réorganisation de la Société Européenne* (1814). It was a fervent plea to the Congress of Vienna for the constitution of a European Parliament which was to have exclusive right to levy taxes on imports uniting Europe in a free trade area; besides, the Parliament would exercise supervision over public instruction, and among other things, undertake a vast project of canal building connecting the Danube with the Rhine and the Rhine with the Baltic.

The goal of St. Simon and his disciples was the organization of the whole world into a union of harmonious, peaceful association for trade and industry. According to St. Simon's reading of history, Europe had broken the shell of its feudal, military past, and a new era of industrial creativeness and peace was dawning; only it needed the action of men of creative intellect aware of the transformation that was taking place to organize and accelerate it. Providence had designed that an industrial era would succeed to the military one, and the belief that capitalism tended to break down national frontiers and prepare the ground for universal peace was shared even by hostile critics of capitalism. It is found not only in the writings of Spencer, but also in the *Communist Manifesto*.

The work of Crucè and of St. Simon, though we do not suggest for a moment that the former was a socialist, illustrates a phase of the socialist ideal which, unfortunately, is fast falling out of sight, i.e., universality, internationalism. With Marx and Engels, no less than St. Simon, socialism is still an international conception, a vision to be realized on a world scale or not at all. And, indeed, the new world order was already germinating within the capitalist corpus. Here we are faced with a seeming paradox, for Crucè may be taken not only as the ancestor of St. Simon, undoubtedly a socialist, but of Bentham, Cobden, and Bright, as well—the capitalist exponents of an internationalism that would abolish all tariff barriers, all obstructions to the free flow of goods and the migration of men from the dearest to the cheapest markets. The liberal capitalist ideal and the universal socialist ideal met in a common demand for the establishment of an international society, but the aspirations of both now seem doomed in the face of the division of the world into national states.

Though the point of departure between capitalist and socialist internationalisms is at present of hardly more than theoretical interest, it still is deserving of

a passing notice. The former envisages a state of universal freedom, trusting that the harmony necessary for the operation of the whole will be achieved by the balancing of divergent interests, and their cancelling out against each other, while the latter requires a universal super state that will enforce the universal social interest against individuals or groups seeking to promote a real or fancied benefit to themselves to the detriment of the whole. A sentence taken from the St. Simon book we have cited is illustrative of the parting of the ways of these two streams of thought. "The great parliament will permit full freedom of thought, and the free exercise of every religion, but it will repress those doctrines that are contrary to the grand moral code which it has established." These are terrible words and we confess that we cannot read them without a shiver; they are a reminder of the possibility of a universal despotism beside which the Bolshevik and Nazi autocracies are petty tyrannies, but how else can universal socialism, if established, be maintained?

Our immediate concern, however, is not with the problems of an international socialist society but with a federation of European states. There seems no reason to suppose that a purely political federation modeled after the classic pacifist projects from William Penn's proposed European parliament to the League of Nations will do more than repeat the experience of the last score of years. A community of European states must be based on a felt community of interest, and that not only political but economic as well. It was even more economic than political dissatisfaction with our own Confederation that led to the establishment of a Constitution for the United States of America. The test as to whether an effective European union is feasible cannot be determined by the willingness of states to make high sounding resolutions of their lofty desires to live at peace with each other; it is to be measured by their readiness to join in uniting Europe into a common free trade area; in forswearing their rights of sovereignty to exact monopoly advantage for their own citizens as against others; in eliminating national preferences for the chances of gain or loss in a European market.

A European union of states each pursuing hostile market policies is scarcely any more credible than a United States of America with the states enacting discriminatory legislation against each other. Such concealed discrimination in fact exists and would wreck the federal Union if it were not that its quantity is constantly being kept down by the scythe of the federal government. A free market presupposes, of course, free competing units, i.e., capitalism, and it is vain to imagine that a European union can be promoted by any but capitalist methods. Socialist states could scarcely retain their socialism if they abandoned control over foreign trade.

Undoubtedly, the desire for European union is strong, but it is questionable whether it is stronger than the willingness of the people of that continent to renounce real or conceived benefits resulting from protectionist and restrictionist policies. However that be, we must arrive at the conclusion that pacifism as a basis of federal union is not enough. Its program

is too negative to supply the foundation for a workable European union. It is ironic that while a federal union of European states is inconceivable except within the framework of liberal capitalist state policies, such a union if ever it is achieved will be largely owing to the inspiration and suggestion of socialist thought.

Suggestions for a Beginning Teacher

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As a beginning teacher you should first learn how to construct a daily lesson plan. This plan, according to the writer's experience, should include the following:

I. Review of the Previous Lesson

A. Since your teaching experience is very meager you should decide in advance and write in your teaching notebook (a fairly small loose leaf notebook is best), the points in the previous lesson you wish to review. The best way to start the lesson is at the very beginning of the period as soon as the bell rings. It is a good idea to start enthusiastically with a clear, confident voice something like this: "Yesterday we were discussing the struggles of labor for security and we found that the American labor movement has gone through periods of rapid growth and equally rapid decline. We saw that the American Federation of Labor etc. . . ."

B. As a variation you may wish to give a brief summarizing talk on the previous lesson and then ask two or three students to review the significant points brought out. Pupils may refer to their notebooks which should contain an outline or summary of the previous lesson taken from the board at the close of the lesson.

C. During your first year of teaching you will probably not spend more than ten minutes of the forty-five on this first part of the lesson. (To save time the role may be taken by a trustworthy class secretary.) Sign make-up slips after class or before the bell rings at the beginning of the class.

D. A narrative, descriptive story method may be used in dealing with the review so that the student will see the significant points which were discussed in the past lesson or lessons as a connected, unified whole. Pupils learn by repetition.

E. As a beginning teacher it is wise to refer frequently to your lesson plan in your notebook or on a separate card to make sure you are not omitting important points.

F. Sometimes it is a good thing to give a short answer test on the review. Sending pupils to the board to summarize or outline is also good practice.

G. Do not let any student get you into an involved discussion at this stage because the material has supposedly been treated. However, if a sincerely expressed question is asked which shows the need for clarification of some point take a minute or so to answer it.

H. During this phase of the lesson you will find that you are securing the attention of the class and many students will be anxious to volunteer because they know the answers—(having gone over the material the day before.) Continue to hold the attention by demonstrating you are well prepared and know just what you will do next.

II. The New Lesson

(It is assumed you have thought out your objectives.)

A. Decide before class how you will begin—don't be timid!

B. Ask some thought questions and some memory fact questions. Do not ask very many direct questions. It is better to take your time and glance at the questions in your notebook carefully before asking them in order to avoid asking cumbersome poorly worded questions. Especially try to avoid double or triple questions.

C. Think up illustrations, comparisons and contrasts within the experience of the pupil involving his school life, that is, student council, student court, activities, and materials involving the integration of Social Studies with other subjects. Ask for comparisons, similarities and historical development involving the recent headlines or involving community problems, pertaining to the topic which is being developed. Tap the student's interests and experiences and you will get his attention.

D. Think up similar situations which you know the student has discussed in previous lessons and ask

questions which bring out significant relationships. This emphasis on past-present, present-past developments will give the lesson meaning; moreover, the reference to situations which the student understands and which he has, in some cases, experienced will enable you to hold the attention of the class and gain pupil interest through increased pupil participation.

E. The amount of talking and explaining done by the teacher during this stage of the lesson should be relatively little. The pupils should do most of the discussing with a few stimulating guidance questions where necessary. Many beginning teachers attempt to lecture in a manner similar to their college instructors. The Lecture Method has its place but it should not be used except on special occasions: to supplement materials and arouse interest. Don't try to fill the student's mind with outlines and facts. What you want is understanding of the vital problems of today.

F. Write the leading questions on the board plainly so that the pupils know the point you are attempting to lead them to develop and think out. Write the supplementary points developed on the blackboard as the class analyzes the question.

G. Before going to class make sure you are dressed conservatively and neatly, but in a manner which develops your personality. Change your position from time to time. Be informal if you wish. Use your hands to gesture as much as you need to in order to emphasize certain points. Be natural but forceful. Above all be human! Remember you were a high school student once. Have a sense of humor, but don't overdo it.

H. When a student is reciting, cultivate the habit of being a good listener. The students will usually like to express themselves. You will soon learn how to discourage and guide the "bluffers" and how to encourage the deep thinkers (if any).

I. Have a chart of the class in front of you and call on each student by his first name or the name he likes to be called.

J. Encourage the girls (many of whom will be hesitant about volunteering) to give their opinions.

K. Without being pedantic or supercilious, and without trying to display your college education too pointedly, it is advisable to demonstrate by your conduct of the discussion that you know your field.

L. Try to prevent some of the boys, who like to hear themselves talk, from monopolizing the time. This may be done by individual conferences and assigning interesting activities to these pupils.

M. Try to be fair about accepting various viewpoints but ask the class from time to time: "How many agree?"—"How many disagree?" "What is your evidence?" In this way you can encourage critical thinking and still not discourage volunteering. However, praise all sincere answers in some way wherever it is at all possible. Every human being

will work harder and will cooperate better with occasional praise. Of course, your praise should be sincere and not just obvious flattery. However, I believe even flattery is better than the constant picking to pieces each pupil's answer. This procedure is monotonous and depressing.

N. Remind the students to speak clearly and distinctly. If you find out how to do this without constantly reminding them, you will achieve much.

O. Don't forget to call on the pupils in the corners of the room and the ones in front of you.

P. If you insist on certain procedures during your first few weeks you will save yourself considerable time later because pupils will have formed the habits you desire them to have and these habits will last throughout the year. This is hard work, requiring patience, but it is worth it.

Q. A summary at the close of each lesson is very much worth while. This may be done using the blackboard outline which you have already prepared with the class. Ask the pupils to record important points in their notebooks. While this is being done you can be explaining any points not understood and you can also unify the whole lesson bringing out your objectives.

R. As you get more experienced you will tend to forget your summary unless you form the habit in the beginning. Beware of a poor division of the class period. Use your time efficiently. Don't waste time by repeating pupils' answers and paraphrasing replies.

S. Allow about twenty-five minutes for the development of the lesson. It is better not to try to cover too much ground in one lesson. It is more intelligent practice to spend time selecting the important problems to develop and do a good piece of work than to cover a large number of rather abstract topics rapidly and ineffectively. Don't worry too much about covering ground for a State Regents' Examination. Your pupils will be better prepared if they know the big, important problems and understand the present implications than if they know a little about everything gained by rapid high pressure drill and test procedures. However a short test on the assigned lesson at the beginning of the period is good practice at times.

III. *The Assignment*

You now have approximately ten minutes for the next day's assignment. The assignment may also be given at the beginning of the period. The arguments for the beginning and at the close of the period are about equal in number and weight.

A. High school students need to be given very specific directions for the study of each new lesson.

B. Use the blackboard in writing directions and make certain there is no misunderstanding of just

what you expect of your class. Encourage pupils to have an assignment pad and to use it.

C. Later, when you know your students better, you should attempt individual assignments in addition to the general assignment—such as oral talks, reports on activities, book reviews, radio summaries, etc.

D. Try to jot down in your notebook the names of the pupils who will be making reports and when due so that you won't forget them. Also shorten your discussion the next day to include these talks. Don't have too many, but have one or more each lesson if possible.

E. Collateral reading and reference work of all kinds should be assigned carefully. Sometimes a slip of paper with special assignments may be passed out to certain pupils. A printed bibliography for each unit is helpful. Otherwise put your directions for each unit on the board.

GENERAL COMMENTS

A. Most of the foregoing suggestions are effective not only for the "question-answer—day to day" method, but for all methods and for all teachers.

B. In using the unit method assume what different procedure must be used. However, even if the teacher is using the unit method or problem method or some other method—he must develop the same techniques only in a different way.

C. If you can find time (practice teachers should sacrifice to find time) maps, pictures, and other illustrative materials should be in constant use. Older

teachers frequently forget the power of visual materials.

D. The test of a good lesson is the type of attention and interest which is demonstrated. A good indication that there exists both attention and interest can be seen in:

1. Voluntary discussions and answers.
2. Voluntary questions.
3. Objections.
4. A minimum of clock watching.

E. During the first few years of teaching the teacher should adhere rather strictly to these procedures. After he becomes experienced more liberties may be taken but he should beware of doing too much of the talking. Pupil participation and activity is absolutely essential if learning is to be effective.

F. Special methods and conferences must be used for pupils who are not getting the work. These students may be dull or over-sensitive, or they may be worried about home problems. Sometimes lending a sympathetic ear and giving a few words of encouragement will help greatly.

G. In conclusion the writer sincerely believes that if the young teacher will work hard and apply the above suggestions and in addition if he will develop a well-rounded, friendly, pleasant personality he will make an excellent beginning in the teaching profession. He may then be ready to experiment with other progressive methods.

Motion Picture Department

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During the early years of the American school the student usually acquired the basic information about the world outside his own small community from the textbooks which he read. Today, however, an inescapable barrage of information comes to him over the radio, from the pages of the newspaper, and from the screen. Surveys show that the high school pupil averages two and a half hours each day before the radio, a half hour each day scanning the daily newspaper, and three hours each week in the movie theatre. One function of the school in this situation is to assist him in interpreting this information—to set up a situation which will enable the pupil to bring together these many experiences into a meaningful whole.

The teacher must prepare for this task by being familiar with these outside sources of information. He cannot coöperate in interpreting a social world with which he has had little experience. By being

familiar with the experiences of the student he can help set up standards for the selection and evaluation of the offerings made by the radio, movies, and press.

The following theatrical films are chosen for brief review here because they seem to offer material that should enrich the social studies curriculum.

This is an attempt to help teachers select from the forty feature pictures issued each month by the major Hollywood producers those films which are most likely to contribute to the social studies field. Since the pictures have not yet been released for showing at the time of this writing, the descriptions are necessarily based on the advance information given by the producers.

FEATURE PICTURES

DR. EHRLICH'S MAGIC BULLET

The story of Dr. Paul Ehrlich's conquest of diph-

theria, typhoid, and syphilis is presented in this film. The picture, like the *Story of Louis Pasteur*, not only illustrates the impacts of new discoveries on the health of the nation or world, but shows also the difficulty, suspicion, and fear with which new ideas are met.

Produced by Warner Brothers. Director, William Dieterle. Release date, March 2, 1940.

The cast includes: Edward G. Robinson, Ruth Gordon, and Otto Kruger.

NORTHWEST MOUNTED POLICE

This technicolor film is based upon the heroic activities of the mounties in Canada's "Civil War," the Riel Rebellion in 1885. The Metis Nation of half-breeds in eastern Canada, led by Louis Riel, declared their independence from the crown. Riel was arrested and hanged as a traitor.

Produced by Paramount. Director, Cecil B. DeMille. Release date, April, 1940.

The cast includes: Francis McDonald, Gary Cooper, Madeleine Carroll, Preston Foster, Paulette Goddard, Robert Preston, and Akim Tamiroff.

EDISON, THE MAN

The picture opens with the celebration of the Golden Jubilee of Light in 1929 honoring Thomas A. Edison, then 82. The scene shifts back to 1869 and comes down through the years of Mr. Edison's work to close again in 1929.

Produced by MGM. Producer, John W. Considine.

The cast includes: Mickey Rooney, Spencer Tracy, Rita Johnson, Gene Lockhart and Charles Coburn.

SHORT PICTURES

OLD HICKORY

This is a Warner Brothers historical short, condensing in a few moments of color Andrew Jackson's picturesque part in the Battle of New Orleans and the important happenings during his life as President.

TEDDY, THE ROUGH RIDER

Incidents from the political career of President Theodore Roosevelt are compiled into a chapter for Vitaphone's series of great men and moments of American history. Roosevelt is presented as Commissioner of Police for New York City in 1895, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, leader of the Rough Riders, governor of New York, Vice-President, and finally as President of the United States. Sidney Blackmar plays President Roosevelt in this short feature.

PRODUCING SOCIAL STUDIES FILMS

Can a motion picture production program be used as the central activity by which a class of high school pupils can develop a sound understanding of a community problem?

Six production programs of this type are being considered in the Denver schools. Pupils are planning the study of problems such as housing, recreation, and the production of food, so that they will have a film produced by themselves as the culmination of their work. The project is being sponsored by the American Council on Education. Dr. Charles F. Hoban, Jr., is the director, and Floyd Brooker, assistant director, of the Motion Picture Project of the American Council.

An experiment in producing teaching materials in the form of motion pictures for safety education has been launched in ten Ohio schools. This is a cooperative venture on the part of these schools, and a series of conferences has been planned for the exchange of experiences during the production program. The writing of a scenario and the photographing on 16 mm. film will be part of the pupils' work which will be tied into the instructional program of the school. The project is sponsored by the Highway Education Board of Washington, D.C., and the Bureau of Educational Research of the Ohio State University.

What are some of the opportunities for school film production in the social studies which would make feasible projects for the amateur teacher-photographer? The following areas deal with important pupil-community relationships but little teaching material has been made available in these fields. These areas lend themselves well to motion picture photography, and the task would not be too difficult for the average amateur:

- (1) Wholesome recreational opportunities available in the community to high school students.
- (2) Student hobbies that provide for personal growth.
- (3) The organization and functioning of local city, village, or rural government.
- (4) How the local water system works.
- (5) Obeying city traffic laws.
- (6) The municipal light plant.
- (7) Housing in the local community.
- (8) Local industries and their influence on the community.

Each social studies teacher will be able to think of many other community resources which can become subjects for motion picture presentation.

News and Comment

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REFORM

During the fall and winter, John Chamberlain, now an editor of *Fortune* magazine, examined several reform schemes and proposed one of his own. Appearing as a series of five articles in *The New Republic* (September 6, 13, 27, January 1, February 5), Mr. Chamberlain's "Blueprints for a New Society" are of particular interest to teachers of the social studies.

Socialism, Mr. Chamberlain held, is incompatible with democracy. Under state ownership of the means of production and distribution, every worker, of course, becomes a government employee. Can he keep his job and preserve his freedom as a voter? Russia's experience suggests that a one-party system is inevitable and that there can be no real disagreement between the worker and those in control of the government without jeopardizing his livelihood.

The weakness of anarchism, said Mr. Chamberlain, lies in its condemnation of power instead of providing for its control. Moreover, the course of history has worked against it. Anarchism seeks to establish a social economy based upon localism. It would establish largely self-supporting, small, communistic groups at a time when the Industrial Revolution has been yoking all communities and nations together interdependently. Yet principles of anarchism have not been without influence upon the co-operative movement, industrial unionism, and the belief in the right of everyone to the physical necessities of living.

The British, likely to prefer workability to logic, developed Guild Socialism, a system under which national guilds of trade unions would operate business. Such group capitalism, said Mr. Chamberlain, should be able to avoid the evils of private capitalism without inviting the evils of the socialist state employer. Hints of Guild principles are evident in totalitarian economies.

Older than these schemes is that of distributism. In many ways it is reminiscent of the Middle Ages. Jefferson favored it. Herbert Agar, in this country, has written persuasively about it. Hilaire Belloc and Gilbert Chesterton, British Catholics, expounded it. In the distributist state, the family becomes the economic unit, each family owning its land and other means of production which it works. The coöperatives, consisting of independent and coöperating members of a group, exemplify the spirit of distributism. It assures the benefits of collective methods

without control from above. In this country an actual example of distributism at work is the community of Bayard Lane in New York, which Ralph Borsodi founded. Although not independent of capitalists and not fully distributist, the Bayard Lane families have gone far toward home production.

In his final article, Mr. Chamberlain offered his own plan. In America it is impractical to attempt to set up a ready made system to be adopted on a take-it-or-leave-it basis. So Mr. Chamberlain was guided by two principles: "that new institutions always grow out of old institutions, that society never succeeds in breaking cleanly with its past, that no sound or workable systems are or ever can be 'pure,'" and that "planners must also think in institutional terms of what a given plan will do to the spirit of the men involved." His plan, accordingly, envisaged five economic systems going at once.

These would be (1) a system of small proprietors, such as farmers and gas-station owners, in which individual variation in activities is socially good and where there is little danger of monopolistic practices. (2) A system of great corporations which would cover those activities requiring large amounts of capital, such as the steel industry, shipbuilding, and radio broadcasting. Some kind of state control would be necessary for this system in order to protect the community against the vices of monopolistic tendencies. (3) A system of public utilities or natural monopolies, likewise under state control. (4) Government collectivism for activities which now are exemplified by the Post Office, the TVA and soil conservation. And lastly, (5), private collectivism, illustrated by coöperatives, universities, golf clubs, and the Y.M.C.A.

These systems, already a part of our economic structure, can be improved by national planning which would make more efficient their organization and relations, stabilize them, and provide pump-priming when, where, and as needed. By gifts of public lands the nation prompted railroad building and western development. By road building it promoted the automobile industry. On occasion, the government should be a prime mover, inspiring useful, private production. Such inspiration is needed today. Would a housing program fulfil that function? Or a plan to re-build railroads?

Mr. Chamberlain's proposal looking "Toward a Permanent NEP" has the merit of being historical minded, suggesting lines of procedure geared into existing social machinery, flexible, and capable of

adjustment in the light of experience. Others, like David Cushman Coyle, have been thinking in the same vein. Are these men showing the road the nation is taking?

NEUTRALITY

In several quarters voices are being raised declaring that neutrality has been revolutionized since the World War. In *Events* for March, Professors Fleming and Schuman pointed out the changing nature of neutrality in the light of the present conflicts ("Outmoded Neutrality" and "A New Era in American Diplomacy"). It is virtually impossible to keep out of a major conflict or to keep clear of its sparks. Professor Schuman proposed that, recognizing the impossibility of impartial neutrality, we be willing to pay "the price of successful defense against aggressive autocracies." Anarchy and lawlessness are the alternatives. Both men regarded isolation as outmoded. Whatever one's opinion, the neutrality problem, 1940 style, is different from the neutrality problem of a generation or two ago, and the implications of the differences are of vital interest to the nation.

PAN AMERICA

Howard J. Trueblood, in the February 15 issue of *Foreign Policy Reports*, gave a useful historical sketch of the "Progress of Pan-American Coöperation." After a résumé of the origins of Pan-Americanism, he traced the relations of the United States and Latin America from 1826 to the calling of the first Pan-American Conference in 1888 and then reviewed the work of successive conferences since 1889.

From 1888 to 1928 Mr. Trueblood sketched the features of our Latin-American policy and indicated later changes. The article described the machinery of Pan-Americanism, the Pan-American Union, the peace machinery set up at Lima, and the progress of economic coöperation since the World War. The account was concluded by a summary of the problems of Inter-American relations today.

PUBLIC SERVICE CONTROL

In the second of his four articles on "Central versus Local Control of Public Services" (see this department for February), Dr. Paul Studenski summarized the evidences of the "Shortcomings of Excessive Decentralization," in the February issue of the *Teachers College Record*. The principal shortcomings may be grouped under six heads: extreme decentralization (1) results in an inefficient and costly management of local affairs, (2) fosters "bossism" and machine politics, (3) breeds provincialism and therefore regional and national disunity and disorganization, (4) provides extreme variation in the

quality of services rendered, (5) tends toward inertia and rigidity in government, and (6) weakens national security.

Dr. Studenski's discussion was supported by generous quotations from many well-known students of government.

INTERESTING VIEWS FROM SCIENCE

Dr. Kirtley F. Mather of Harvard University discussed "The Future of Man As an Inhabitant of Earth" in a way which many older high-school students will enjoy (*The Scientific Monthly* for March). He gave the reasons for believing that man and creatures like him may continue to live comfortably on the earth "for many scores if not for hundreds of millions of years to come," and he estimated the future availability of natural resources.

In the same issue, Dr. Paul R. Heyl presented an unusually clear and readable account of the fourth dimension and space curvature. These matters intrigue so many high school students, and Dr. Heyl's "The Space in Which We Live" is fascinating.

FRENCH AND AMERICAN EDUCATION

The celebrated French writer and critic, the Abbé Ernest Dimnet, compared the consequences of the American and French systems of education in the March issue of *The Atlantic Monthly* ("Education and Literature"). Anything from his pen is delightful reading. This little article is especially enlightening to high-school teachers. M. Dimnet was not interested in comparing our high schools with the French lycées to the advantage or disadvantage of either. In the role of a detached observer he reviewed the consequences in national character and life which flowed from the objectives, methods, and procedures of the two systems of secondary education.

TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIP

The address of Dr. Arnold Gesell, Director of Yale's Clinic of Child Development, on "The Teacher-Pupil Relationship in a Democracy" which was printed in the February 17 number of *School and Society*, is of great assistance to teachers. Dr. Gesell, like so many educators, believes that positive action must be taken to safeguard the sources of democracy. Efforts in that direction depend for success upon the everyday teacher-pupil relationships, which inevitably affect the attitude of the child who soon will be the adult citizen.

Dr. Gesell's comparison of the similarities and differences between parent-child and teacher-pupil relationships brought out the high significance of mental hygiene in the classroom. Bound up with it is the teacher's personality. Accounts were given of two contrasting personalities of teachers, one a domi-

neering type with an eye fastened on accomplishment, the other, kindly and lovable, who never lost sight of human relations, of beauty, happiness, and considerateness.

Healthy, adult-child relations, he said, were composed of considerateness, benevolent discipline, sense of humor, and a philosophy of growth. These were essential to education for democracy. Considerateness displays respect for the dignity of the individual, the foundation stone of democracy and the democratic attitudes. Benevolent discipline seeks to strengthen the child's self-control and responsibility, again respecting his individuality. Humor both relieves tension and provides the air of freedom. Too often, teachers seem to be a humorless lot to their pupils. Humor, like the leaven in the lump, is essential if the material is to work properly. Finally, the child, a growing organism in varying stages of immaturity, needs a sense of security which promotes the self-confidence so necessary to good growth. "The sense of security is not a mysterious institution, but an organized disposition built up steadily by daily experience." Considerateness, understanding, sympathy, and friendliness are the ingredients of the type of experience which holds personality for democratic living.

GREECE AND ROME

The National Geographic Magazine for March will be very useful in classes studying the earlier history of civilization. Devoted largely to the classical lands of Italy and the Aegean, the issue offers, in picture and story, interesting and helpful historical materials. A large map supplement shows the Eastern Mediterranean regions.

CHILDREN

The Survey Midmonthly for February was an unusually large number. It gave an ample digest of the White House Conference on "Children in a Democracy," which was held last January. This was the fourth decennial meeting and studied child problems in terms of the family, national resources, health, religion, education, employment, and recreation.

In the *Monthly Labor Review* for January, Ella A. Merritt of the Industrial Division of the U. S. Children's Bureau described the "Trend of Child Labor, 1937 to 1939," as shown in the non-agricultural employment of children fourteen to seventeen years of age. Beginning with the 1930 census, Miss Merritt enumerated the factors which influence such employment, and reported the numbers at work and their occupations, the schooling, and the sex of these young people.

Under the leadership of Dorothy Canfield Fisher

a movement called the "Children's Crusade for Children" has been launched. President Conant of Harvard University, Harry Emerson Fosdick, Dorothy Thompson, William Allen White, and other persons prominent in many fields of American life support it. The movement is neither sectarian nor partisan. Its purpose is to establish a fund to aid refugee children in all parts of the world who are exiled from their native land. To this end, the school children of America are being asked, during Child Refugee Week in April, to contribute, if possible, as many pennies as each is years old. Such a fund should go far to alleviate a dreadful tragedy. None of it is to be spent on expenses.

CENSUS

Scarcely any high school class in social studies will go through this spring without talking about the taking of the 1940 census, the sixteenth decennial survey by the national government. During the month of April about 120,000 enumerators will ply the nation with a battery of questions on personal, economic, social, educational, and other matters. Forwarded to the Census Bureau at Washington, the replies will be tabulated, classified, studied, and given to the nation in a series of reports. George F. Willison, in "Uncle Sam Counts Noses," told the story of the census in a readable account in the February issue of *Current History Magazine*.

Mr. Willison wrote with the general reader in mind. An account of the census written for more youthful readers is William Atherton Du Puy's story of how "The Government Takes a Census," in the February number of *The Journal* of the N.E.A. Raymond Nathan of the Bureau of the Census wrote on the work of the bureau in the February issue of *School Life*, in an article entitled "Every Ten Years."

CURRENT EVENTS

A useful, summary report of the methods commonly used to teach "current events" was made by Reuben R. Palm of Stanford University in the January issue of *Secondary Education*, the bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Teachers of the N.E.A. ("How Can We Teach Current Affairs?"). Mr. Palm also summarized the principal obstacles to the teaching of current affairs, in the community, in courses of study, in teacher preparation, in time, and in available materials.

Dr. George Gallup himself described the principles, the aims, and the values of "Polling Public Opinion." His article dealt mainly with the work of his American Institute of Public Opinion and gave a good picture of the workings of this modern phenomenon (*Current History* magazine for February).

The issue of *The American Teacher* for January was devoted largely to the subject of racial equality and tolerance. Among the contributors were U. S. Commissioner John W. Studebaker, Professor Fay-Cooper Cole, anthropologist of the University of Chicago, Professor I. Keith Tyler of Ohio State University, and Alice Keliher of the Progressive Education Association. Pictures, bibliographical material, editorials, book reviews, and articles combined to offer classes in social studies valuable assistance in the study of race relations.

A very timely aid to all teachers of the social studies is Harriet H. Schoen's "The Significance of the Increasing Use of Pamphlets as Teaching Materials," an article appearing in *School and Society* for February 10. Never was there an era of pamphleteering equal to ours. Radio broadcasters, manufacturers, social welfare groups of all kinds, advertisers, public and private organizations, educational and propagandist groups, and numberless other sources emit a ceaseless flow of leaflets, pamphlets, booklets, and similar matter.

Much of this material supplements that of textbooks, elaborates upon it, brings it up to date, and in other ways proves useful. Much of it, propagandist in purpose, must be handled critically. Its use should give youth invaluable training in dealing with propaganda.

Pamphlets at times may replace a textbook, especially in courses dealing with social problems. Such publications as the Headline Books and the Public Affairs Pamphlets of the Public Affairs Committee and the Foreign Affairs Policy Association were given prominent mention by Miss Schoen. But many other publications of government agencies, of publishing houses, and other organizations were described.

As a guide to the selection of pamphlets Miss Schoen drew attention to several aids. One of the most useful for high schools is the *Adult-Study Guide*, issued eight times a year by the Service Bureau for Adult Education, New York University, New York City. The *Guide* classifies and reviews current pamphlets. Also valuable is Lester Condit's *A Pamphlet about Pamphlets* which explains how best to use them (a 1939 publication of the University of Chicago Press).

TRIPS

A lengthy description and evaluation of a travel-study trip by a small group of older high-school children was given by William J. Jones in the January 17 issue of the *Educational Research Bulletin* of Ohio State University ("Measuring Some Outcomes of a Field-Study Experience").

The World's Fair at New York, as it re-opens this spring, plans to assist schools and students by a

series of publications describing and explaining the exhibits. Information about them and other services of the Fair's Department of Public Education may be secured from its Information Service.

WAR DEPARTMENT'S SCHOOLS

Continuing the presentation of "Schools Under the Federal Government," Walton C. John, in the February number of *School Life*, described those under "The Department of War." Among others, he dealt with the United States Military Academy, the Command and General Staff School, the Army War College, the Army Industrial College, and special service schools.

COÖPERATION

In the face of the mounting tide of useful classroom materials it is helpful to know of the practical steps taken elsewhere to make them known and available to teachers. In the February number of *The Elementary School Journal* (pp. 404-406), excerpts were quoted from the *Illinois Teacher* where Alta McIntire, a supervisor of the Berwyn (Ill.) public schools, reported on the plan followed in that school system.

A vacant classroom was fitted up as a Curriculum Laboratory for the Berwyn schools, and arrangements were made whereby teachers in turn took charge, keeping materials in order, recording all borrowings, and otherwise managing the laboratory. The room was equipped with shelves, cases, drawers, racks, and other necessary storage equipment. Here copies of textbooks, professional books and other such matter were displayed. Magazines, booklets, and pamphlets were classified. All sorts of materials from all kinds of business houses, chambers of commerce, departments of government, educational bulletins and reports, and the like were labelled and available. Maps, pictures, charts, mimeographed matter, catalogs, sample tests, workbooks, and other kinds of aids were on file.

Tables and desks were provided where teachers could work. Assistance was given to teachers, and inquiries and suggestions were welcomed. A committee of teachers, one each from the various schools, had general charge. Through its representation on this committee, each school was in close touch with its Curriculum Laboratory.

Another kind of coöperative effort is exemplified in *The B.C. Teacher* for February, the official organ of the British Columbia Teachers Federation (Vancouver, B.C.). Among the standing committees of the federation is the Lesson-Aids Committee. For nearly three years, thirty teachers have been "collecting well-tried units of work from teachers in the

province, editing them, arranging for their multi-graphing, and making them available to teachers anywhere at a strictly nominal charge."

MEETINGS

On April 1-3, at Stephens College, Columbia, Mo., the second annual National Consumer Education Conference is being held. The theme of the conference is, "Making Consumer Education Effective." Discussion topics include such subjects as the effects

of the European war upon American consumers, the propaganda problem, government services to consumers, and consumer problems in the classroom.

A regional social studies education conference will be held at the Clarion State Teachers College, Clarion, Pa., on April 6. The conference will consider the question of civic education. Problems of unemployed youth, the consequences of the war in Europe, and other socio-economic matters will be discussed by educators prominent in the state.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania

Words That Won the War. The Story of the Committee on Public Information. By James R. Mock and Cedric Larson. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1939. Pp. xvi, 372. \$3.75.

This book tells the story of the Committee on Public Information, which was our government's chief agency for propaganda and censorship when we were fighting for democracy in 1917-1918. The authors refer to it as the CPI; but their story shows that the name "Creel Committee," by which it was generally known in its lifetime, is a better one, because it reflects the tremendous influence of Chairman George Creel's dynamic personality on the character of the Committee's work. At the time of his appointment, he was already a well known journalist of muck-raking and progressive antecedents. More recently, he had been an ardent champion of Wilsonian idealism and he was President Wilson's personal choice for this post.

Though Wilsonian idealism may seem less than incandescent to the present generation, this searching and well-documented study leaves little room for doubt that, for the purpose in view, the choice of Creel was a happy one. It shows that under his guidance the CPI handled its delicate and complex assignment with great skill. This included censorship as well as propaganda in the United States and propaganda in both neutral and belligerent countries, in Latin America as well as Europe. Propaganda in the United States was the Committee's main function, and this was conducted on a vast scale and through almost every conceivable medium, from press releases and pamphlets to posters and movies. It enlisted the services of luncheon clubs, business organizations, labor unions, and traveling salesmen, and obtained one hundred per cent coöperation from the academic profession, especially the historians, among whom

were such men as Guy Stanton Ford, Carl Becker, Charles A. Beard, and Frederick L. Paxson, with whose aid the CPI prepared and distributed millions of pamphlets on the causes and issues of the war and the problems of peace. The net cost of all these activities was about five million dollars; and it is interesting to note that of this sum only about thirteen thousand dollars went to the Division of Pictorial Publicity, which produced the exceptionally influential and memorable series of posters by Howard Chandler Christy.

Occasionally the CPI got into hot water, through its own fault or otherwise. For instance, it was persistently charged with showing favoritism to the Hearst interests; in Mexico its good-will propaganda included a film whose original title, "Pershing's Crusaders," reminded Mexicans of Pershing's very recent invasion of their country; and in Spain, Italy, and elsewhere CPI agents were frequently involved in difficulties with other agents of our own government as well as with agents of our quasi-allies, Italy, France, and England. On the whole, however, the CPI not only performed its unfamiliar task with great skill, but also displayed great fortitude in resisting the temptations of power and showed as much respect for accuracy, intellectual honesty, and democratic ideals as it would be reasonable to expect of any propaganda machine in war time.

As the authors remark, their book is a timely one in the present world crisis, and they have told their story clearly and interestingly. They have not, however, proved the thesis, implied by the title of their book, that the words of the Creel Committee won the first World War.

ARTHUR P. WHITAKER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Back to Self-Reliance. By Matthew M. Chappell. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. ix, 239. \$2.00.

This volume contrasts present-day training in home, school, society, and government with that of pioneer America. Self-reliance was compelled in our forefathers because of their environment. Dr. Chappell shows how paternalism as well as the materialistic influence of the movies, advertising, and radio have exerted a disintegrating influence on modern character and personality. By concrete examples taken from his experiences, Dr. Chappell shows that many Americans of today are emotionally immature, inadequately trained, lack a proper sense of values, and possess an instability that fosters shallow living. Despite these shortcomings, Dr. Chappell is convinced "that man is not a helpless victim of his environment." This book offers ideas that will develop mature personalities which are capable of adequate living.

MARIAN E. DAWES

Northbrook, Illinois

France and Latin-American Independence. By W. S. Robertson. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1939. Pp. xv, 626. \$3.75.

Most recent of a long line of distinguished publications provided by the Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History at Johns Hopkins University, this book is a contribution to scholarship of first importance, within a rather narrowly circumscribed field. The work is limited to the first fifty years of the nineteenth century; to the commercial, political and diplomatic rivalry of England and France in Europe; and to the transfer of this rivalry across the seas.

There is new significance in Dr. Robertson's conclusions that Napoleon inadvertently became the real liberator of Latin-America; that no evidence is available to indicate that he ever wished to annex Brazil to France though much evidence exists to prove that he had just such designs on Spanish-America; that activities of Bonapartist agents in the New World have been underestimated; that Spanish-American independence received its original, though still-born, recognition by France—a recognition later withheld because of the Bourbon Family Compact; that France reversed its liberal attitude toward Latin-America between 1815 and 1819 after the Bourbon Restoration; that the Treaty of Holy Alliance was "neither a treaty, nor holy, nor an alliance"; that Russia's interest in the Spanish Empire is revealed in "unedited diplomatic correspondence in 1817"; that France seized her trade opportunities in Latin-America from 1819 to 1822 and protected them from pirates but lost these early gains to England through Charles X's intransigent loyalty to the Bour-

bon Family Compact; that the importance of the secret Treaty of Verona has been exaggerated by historians; that Chateaubriand's policy had greater implications than heretofore recognized; that France's defeated commercial interest in Spanish-America sought a compensation in Brazilian trade; and finally that historians have paid too little attention to the abrogation of the Bourbon Family Compact in 1830 which made possible France's recognition of Spain's lost colonies. In sum, this is a magnificent piece of research and interpretation, to be treated with respect. When comparable studies of the interests of Austria and Russia have been added to the literature on the interests of England, Spain, Portugal, and now France, in Latin-America, European history in the first half of the nineteenth century may have to be re-oriented and re-emphasized.

FRANCES L. REINHOLD

Swarthmore College

Swarthmore, Pennsylvania

Journal as Ambassador to Great Britain. By Charles G. Dawes. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. ix, 442. \$5.00.

This record is a fever-chart of world economic depression and of its impact on national and international politics from 1929 to February 2, 1932, when President Hoover recalled General Dawes to head the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. The General notes on November 5, 1929, "This panic, in my judgment, is the beginning of a major depression," and though his immediate feeling is one of satisfaction with his own foresight and solvency, the remainder of his book is a record of the deepening crisis he predicted. It is particularly full on the struggles of Premier MacDonald with the English crisis, the split of the Labour Party, the formation of the national government, and the departure from the gold standard. But it is even fuller on the international repercussions of the world economic crisis. Aggressive nationalism bedevils disarmament. The Hoover Moratorium and the Manchurian crisis complete the tale. It was time for the General to reconstruct American finance.

More than half the book is devoted to the London Naval Conference. The moral of that story is the danger of the naval expert. Most delegations to the conference relegated admirals to the status of advisors, but President Hoover in Washington caught his Naval Board manipulating the agreed "yardstick" to produce eight American cruisers instead of four and one-half. They regarded the yardstick as camouflage for their sacred duty of protecting the national interest. Secretary Stimson told them, "The United States in its international negotiations is not in the habit of camouflaging."

Next in interest is the brief account of Dawes'

role in Geneva during the Manchurian crisis. It explains why he never sat with the League Council, though permitted by his instructions from Washington to do so at his discretion. He feels that by remaining outside as mediator dealing with Japanese, Chinese, and the League Council, he promoted pacific measures, assisted the League, and achieved American objectives without sacrificing the independence of American policy. Like many other things in this important record, his final estimate of the League makes strange reading today: "... the Council in several instances sacrificed juridical consistency to practical duty. By so doing, it saved to the world the prestige of the League which can still be used to mobilize the moral force of the world in time of emergency."

PAUL BIRDSALL

Williams College
Williamstown, Massachusetts

The Constitutional History of the United States, 1776-1826. By Homer C. Hockett. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xiv, 417. \$3.00.

This is the first in a series of three volumes designed to present an intelligent appraisal of the "origin and growth of the principles of our system of government." Its period from 1776 to 1826 is divided into three parts, the first of which deals with the evolution of the British imperial constitution. After ably tracing the rise of English liberalism, Professor Hockett discusses the imperial government and constitution. He then considers the inherent defects which led to the great debates preceding the breakdown of the imperial constitution. In part two the author reveals how the United States inherited this imperial problem and ultimately solved it by framing its own constitution. In part three, American constitutional history is traced from the launching of the ship of state to the momentous decisions of John Marshall.

Professor Hockett has produced a readable and scholarly constitutional history, one that compares favorably with McLaughlin's excellent work. Many teachers will undoubtedly use the book as collateral reading and it is hoped that when the three volumes are completed the publishers will see fit to issue them as a single volume text.

WILLIAM J. PETERSEN

The State Historical Society of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa

The Constitutional History of the United States, 1826-1876: A More Perfect Union. By Homer C. Hockett. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xii, 405. \$3.00.

The second volume of Professor Hockett's *Con-*

stitutional History of the United States deals with the fifty years of American history when constitutional issues became the focal point of a bitter sectional struggle. The dominating note of the period 1826-1876 is the slavery controversy; and Professor Hockett properly devotes most of his attention to the constitutional problems raised by slavery. The disintegration of the Union before the steady growth of southern nationalism; the constitutional issues evoked by the Civil War; and the clash between executive and legislature during the Reconstruction period are treated with the central theme kept consistently in view: the creation of a more perfect union. This emphasis upon slavery and union is not, however, permitted to crowd out the significant changes brought about by the simultaneous rise of democracy and large-scale capitalistic enterprise, with the resultant problems of governmental control of business corporations. During the half-century covered by this book, constitutional questions are tightly interwoven with economics and politics; but Professor Hockett skillfully separates the constitutional strands and cleaves to them throughout. Unlike many constitutional histories of the United States, this book is not a political and economic history with constitutional footnotes; here attention is centered upon constitutional problems, yet the essential political and economic background is sketched with insight and economy of detail. Inevitably, Professor Hockett owes much to the work of Charles Warren, Carl Swisher, James Randall, and William Dunning. It is clear, nevertheless, that Professor Hockett has studied exhaustively the source material and has made excellent use of it to illustrate the development of constitutional questions. The book fills the need of those who wish in brief compass a constitutional history of the United States, incorporating the research of many scholars, and written with a clarity and depth of perception not often found in books of this nature.

JOHN C. MILLER

Bryn Mawr College
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

The American Canon. By Daniel L. Marsh. New York: The Abingdon Press, 1939. Pp. 126. \$1.00.

Written by the president of Boston University, this little book explains true American patriotism by quoting seven documents in which it is embodied. These seven are printed in full in the Appendix: The Mayflower Compact, The Declaration of Independence, The Constitution of the United States, Washington's "Farewell Address," The Star-Spangled Banner, Lincoln's "Second Inaugural Address," and Woodrow Wilson's "Road Away from Revolution."

It was not Dr. Marsh's purpose to offer a critique of the writings which he believes constitute our *American Canon*. He gives briefly the historical setting for each document and analyzes the principles of Americanism in each. High school youth will find profit in the book.

MORRIS WOLF

Girard College
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Biography by Americans, 1658-1936. By Edward H. O'Neill. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1939. Pp. 465. \$4.00.

The author of the *History of American Biography* (1935) has put students of American history still further in debt to him by this comprehensive and useful bibliography. It contains, approximately, seven thousand titles, listed alphabetically by the title of the subject of the biography. The listing of volumes containing several biographical sketches is a helpful procedure, since these collective biographies often contain brilliant sketches and portraits of relatively obscure persons. Pagination is given for each volume. Although a great many of the biographies listed can be found in every public library, Mr. O'Neill has conveniently listed, for each item, keys indicating which of eight great national libraries hold the particular volume.

One needs only to turn casually the pages of this monument to American biography to realize its richness. High school students, in addition to finding the bibliography useful in their general study of American history, might well construct interesting exercises from this compilation. They might, for example, see what kinds of achievement have been rewarded by biographers; and how different periods emphasize different types of achievement. The bibliography should certainly be in every high school library.

MERLE CURTI

Teachers College, Columbia University
New York

Government of Cities in the United States. By Harold Zink. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xii, 636. \$3.50.

New problems created by the depression and old problems now recognized by our increasing social consciousness, in themselves justify a re-examination of the government of American municipalities. This book is intended to be a comprehensive survey of the city of today, covering not only its structure and its activities, but its relation to the county, the state and the Federal government.

Probably the main defect of the book lies in its unequal treatment of municipal activities. Thus it contains an extremely detailed study on the proper

organization of a police department, whereas the subjects of parks and recreation, and public housing, are discussed in a much more summary fashion. Furthermore, the relief problem is approached from a statistical, rather than a sociological angle.

This defect might be more excusable if the author did not give so much space to obvious trivial matters. When the reader is informed that chairs in public libraries are often uncomfortable, he may reasonably be entitled to expect the same thorough treatment of more significant items.

On the other hand, the book has many good features. It covers an extraordinary range of subjects. It is well documented, and it is remarkably free from prejudice. The author has few pet theories, and maintains a critical approach to such devices as the city-manager form of government, which he finds to be generally an improvement but not a panacea.

Of particular interest is the author's emphasis on the importance of the political machine, to which he devotes a section of the book, and one of the best.

Also of interest is his insistence that reform should be secondary to education. This frank recognition of the very vital part which political organizations play in our civic life helps to make the book more than the ordinary theoretical textbook, and makes your reviewer wonder whether courses in civics should not be conducted on the same realistic basis.

JAMES ALAN MONTGOMERY, JR.

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

New Adventures in Democracy. By Ordway Tead. New York: Whittlesey House, 1939. Pp. 229. \$2.00.

In this "approach to the rationale of democratic operation" in education, public service and industry, Ordway Tead assumes the validity of the democratic principle and deals with its "implementation." His social thinking, after twenty-five years as industrial relations counselor and personnel administrator, is advanced though not radical.

Helpful for the practical student of administration is his analysis of democratic structural organization designed to "broaden basic controls without impairment of administrative efficiency." "A college for democracy" should equip for leadership, give a real and attractive experience of democracy and develop unity and direction. Educators and administrators will find a suggestive basis for self-criticism in the chapter-by-chapter applications of this thesis.

In public service, planning should involve participation by all concerned at all levels. Employees should be "in politics" to offset the organized pressure of property rights. The TVA exemplifies a merit system combining efficiency and personal satisfaction for workers. The democratically-minded career-man is preferable as an administrator to the amateur.

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McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, Inc., 330 W. 42nd St., N.Y.C.

"The purpose of economic effort is the well-being of all the people." Tead advocates government oversight of industry, rejects paternalism and endorses collective self-government and the closed shop. These chapters are full of forward-looking proposals for the elimination of insecurity.

The author reveals a religious motivation, sometimes by "sermonizing" and citing secular "proof-texts," but more basically by his concern for the unique worth of the individual and his adumbration of the "twice-born" leader who "shall make the good appeal to us as desirable." Mr. Tead's literary style is unfortunately not on an equality with his courage and sincerity.

W. EDWIN COLLIER

Philadelphia Ethical Society
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Shakespeare in America. By Esther C. Dunn. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xiv, 310. \$3.50.

In *Shakespeare in America* Miss Dunn has attempted to tell for the first time "how Shakespeare took the emphasis and accent of each succeeding era and of each geographical extension as our country developed from the early seventeenth century down to our own time."

Inevitably she is drawn into the general history of the stage in colonial America—New York, Philadelphia, Williamsburg—in the latter of which places *Othello* was once performed before an audience which included the Emperor and the Empress of the Cherokee Indians, their son and several warriors, and the Empress ordered her attendants to stop the sword play of Cassio and Roderigo. Picturesque incidents of this sort counterbalance the necessarily duller account of Shakespeare quoted in political controversy and mulled over at secondhand in early magazines.

Other interesting topics are: the presence of copies of Shakespeare in early American libraries; the continuance in America of opposition to the Puritan stage and the consequent "moralizing" of Shakespeare in advertising; the social status of theatre-going and the management, ticket selling and acting of early actors; the emergence of Shakespeare as our national classic dramatist in the first half of the nineteenth century which established him as a "sensitive barometer of the history of public taste"; and above all, Shakespeare performed on the frontier and during the California gold rush. For the scholarly inclined, there are brief estimates of Hudson, Richard Grant White, and Henry Clay Folger.

Miss Dunn's main contention—that Shakespeare took on "the very age and body of the time his form and pressure"—is an interesting and valuable one. Her book is not the carefully documented and exhaustive history of Shakespeare's part in every phase

of American civilization or of America's part in Shakespeare criticism, which must some day be written. But as a pioneer effort to synthesize that story with special reference to his vitality among us and the uses we have made of him, it deserves both praise—and reading. To a considerable extent, the sale of the book to the "general reader" for whom it was written, will be an index of the soundness of its high estimate of our literary culture.

MATTHEW W. BLACK

University of Pennsylvania
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The Writings and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell: With an Introduction, Notes and a Sketch of his Life. By Wilbur Cortez Abbot. Volume II, *The Commonwealth, 1649-1653.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939. Pp. xvi, 806. \$5.00.

The present volume traces the fortunes of Cromwell during the troubled years between the execution of the king and Cromwell's rise to a position of supreme authority in 1653. Much of it, naturally, is devoted to military affairs. One reads of the campaign in Ireland with the sinister happenings at Drougheda and Wexford, and of that against the Scots with the victory of Dunbar and the "crowning mercy" of Worcester. This is the period, too, of the first Dutch War, with its clear intimation that differences over commerce could at times be more cogent with the Puritans than agreement in religion. But there is also much concerning administrative and political matters, especially toward the end when the Commonwealth is approaching its crisis, a crisis occasioned by the difficulty of preserving constitutionalism under a revolutionary régime lacking a sufficiently broad basis of popular support. This second volume continues the high standards of its predecessor, and displays the same skill in fitting into a strictly chronological organization a narrative which is anything but a mere chronicle. The able exposition of Professor Abbot forms a happy setting for the forceful writings of the Lord General. The volume contains four excellent illustrations and the same number of maps. It concludes with a very full index to the first two volumes.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Modern Railway. By Julius H. Parmelee. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. xiv, 730. \$4.00.

The Modern Railway by the Director of the Bureau of Railway Economics, should prove of real interest to officers and employees of the transportation industries, to shippers, to regulatory authorities,

and to students of transportation. It is an excellent reference book and it will serve as a college text for a general course in the field of railroad transportation, provided the course is not designed to include a full discussion of railroad rates and other charges and of railroad freight services and shipping practices. Its use in a general course in the field of transportation as a whole is limited because, aside from brief mention in chapters devoted primarily to railroad transportation, but four chapters deal primarily with the competitors of the railway industry. It is essentially a book on railroads.

It is a welcome addition to transportation literature because it presents a mass of well organized authoritative material concerning many of the major general problems of the railroad industry. It is well documented throughout and presents additional selected references at the end of each chapter. Some of the more complicated problems of the industry are analyzed so clearly and available material is presented so expertly that even readers who have previously studied them will find the book helpful. Special attention may well be directed to the several chapters devoted to a discussion of railroad operation and operating problems, capital structure, public regulation, labor problems and legislation, taxation and government aid, coördination and consolidation, transport competition, government ownership, financial reorganization and transportation policy.

In a foreword, Dr. Balthasar H. Meyer states that the book presents the railroad point of view but that "it does not close its eyes to other points of view. It is sympathetic toward the railroad but not partisan, nor is it unduly critical of other agencies of transportation. Points of contact with the latter are explained and commented upon with the same restraint which characterizes the language throughout the book."

GROVER G. HUEBNER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

A Short History of the United States, 1492-1939. By John Spencer Bassett. Revised by R. H. Bassett. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xvii, 1039. Maps. \$4.00.

The third edition of this well-known college textbook is undoubtedly the most complete single volume on American history available. The original edition appeared in 1913. The second edition, which the present reviewer first studied as a textbook, was published in 1921. The new edition faithfully follows the original volumes up to the Spanish-American War. After deleting about ten pages from this struggle the volume continues with few changes to the World War. At this point new and valuable material is inserted on social history from 1865 to

1917, dealing with such topics as the economic revolution, social changes, reform, cultural progress, intellectual life, and recreation. The chapter on the World War is followed by an account of the Harding and Coolidge administration, the world depression, and the New Deal through the recession of 1937. The last four chapters will probably prove the least satisfactory: the World War narrative could have undergone further revision in the light of new sources and the material on the New Deal is not entirely objective in presentation. Despite these criticisms the main facts are all there and the third edition, like its predecessors, will serve as the most compact text and reference tool extant.

WILLIAM J. PETERSEN

State Historical Society of Iowa
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TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Seeing Our Country. Book II. By Walter B. Pitkin and Harold F. Hughes. New York. The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. 384. Illustrated. \$1.60.

This is a graphic, intensely modern treatment of the industries of the United States. Much attention is rightly devoted to the research work of chemistry and its wonderful results. No section of our country is neglected. There is repeated emphasis on geographic environment with its effect on man and on business. Underlying principles of economics and sociology are stressed. Many indirect references are made regarding the influence of education in producing skilled workers. An alert student will find many hints on vocational guidance.

Seeing Our Country is not to be taken lightly. Used for short assignments, with many visual aids, and with research work in current magazines and books, it will be a valuable basic text for the present and the future because it is far in advance of most publications of like character.

LOUISE SIGMUND

Girard College Junior High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

American State Government and Administration. By Austin F. Macdonald. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. 639. \$3.75.

This is a revision of the author's 1934 text. One new chapter, on interstate relations, has been added. Several chapters have been extensively revised. Data on the state activities fathered by the Social Security Act have been incorporated into the treatment of state welfare services. The chapter on labor takes into account the recent efforts to enforce collective bargaining by law, the resurgence of minimum wage legislation, and other significant developments in

this field. The important depression phenomenon of interstate trade barriers is dealt with in the chapter on interstate relations. Numerous other modernizations might be noted.

In some instances it seems that changes of moment have been inadequately handled, or neglected. Nebraska's venture in unicameralism, for example, is not accorded much space, although the theoretical issue of one versus two houses is discussed at some length. The first state experiment with a simplified legislative structure under modern conditions is more important than disposition in one short paragraph indicates.

The discussion of the real estate tax makes no mention of the breakdown in the collection system in recent years, which was evidenced by mounting delinquencies and resort to abatement policies. This may have important long time effects in relation to the stability of this source of revenue, and deserves notice.

Mainly, salient developments since the first edition have been satisfactorily detailed in the current revision. The result is a well constructed, up-to-date text, written with clarity and a smoothly flowing if not incisive style.

The material is organized in a dichotomy: government and administration. Part I, government, covers the usual material on the executive, legislative, and judicial structure; electoral processes and mechanisms; and intergovernmental relationships. Administration is analyzed in Part II through treatment of the administrative processes of organization, personnel, and finance; and description of individual regulatory and service functions.

The readability of the present edition is enhanced by a slightly increased page size and the use of a larger type.

JOHN PERRY HORLACHER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Getting a Living. By Harley L. Lutz, Edmund W. Foote, and Benjamin E. Stanton. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1940. Pp. 687. Illustrated. \$1.80.

This well constructed book is essentially a text dealing with the principles of economics. The book is well organized for teaching purposes. Each chapter has a statement of purpose, a set of conclusions, and exercises for review and discussion. Each unit is supplied with a more extended list of readings and film suggestions. The excellent illustrations consisting of pictures, maps, bar and line graphs, pictographs, and similar material make up about eighteen per cent of the textual matter.

The authors develop in three units the economic principles underlying the consumption, production,

and exchange of wealth, followed by three units dealing with value and price, the role of government, and economic policies. The principles of these topics are abstract, thus, this text may not be suited to many high school pupils. The book is written in a straightforward descriptive style with several examples of the principles applied in every day life. The authors develop and use with considerable care the terminology in economics. It seems to this reviewer that the tone of the book is conservative. The authors discuss in a constructive yet unmistakable mien the policies of government and their relation to economic principles.

This book would be particularly adapted to above average seniors in high school, or to junior college students. It is worth investigating.

VICTOR E. PITKIN

Walter S. Parker Junior High School
Reading, Massachusetts

Tennessee Outpost. By Ivy Bolton. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. 244. \$2.00

Hannah Courageous. By Laura Long. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. 246. \$2.00

Washington and the Lafayettes. By Frank and Cortell Hutchins. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. 200. \$2.50.

Every effective social studies classroom has its reading shelf and *Tennessee Outpost* should be in a conspicuous position. It is a good story. The light it sheds on pioneer history during the conquest and development of the country south of the Ohio would justify its selection. But its influence in character education is its greatest asset. Ideals of honor, courage, endurance, charity, self-conquest, and optimism are upheld so artfully that they neither frighten nor bore the reader. The story is recommended for sixth graders. It reads easily and will appeal to the hero-worshippers of that age. The illustrations are attractive and so well placed that they are more effective than full page drawings.

Moral courage is lauded so seldom in books for young people that a deft treatment such as one finds in *Hannah Courageous* is especially welcome. Hannah is a Quaker girl of the middle nineteenth century who wins the reader's heart by being so human, lovable, and adventurous. Her courage is shown by her persistence in finding an avenue for her talents and an escape from a life which is becoming very monotonous. The courage of her associates lies in their efforts toward attaining the common joys of life in an environment most rigid and unbending. Her elders show their courage by helping their oppressed brethren. The style is well adapted to the theme and tempo of the story. The portraits of Quaker

life are clear and graphic. The suspicious, critical, and self righteous attitude of the adult Quakers is modified to almost too great a degree. From beginning to end, however, *Hannah Courageous* commands interest and pleasure.

It's a far cry from the factual history text of yesterday to an adventure like *Washington and the Lafayettees*. Yet there can be no doubt as to which treatment of this friendship between these great men of two great nations will more impress the youth of today. This volume has certain definite advantages. It depicts parallel periods in French and American history and traces the interrelation of events. This is seldom accomplished so clearly as in this story. Washington is described as a kindly, affectionate, human being. The descriptions and episodes and activities are powerful and based on research among original source material. The fact that the style of writing is choppy, the sentences short, and the latter part of the narrative less forceful, should not detract too much from the sterling worth of this tale.

LOUISE SIGMUND

Girard College Junior High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

War in the Twentieth Century. Edited by Willard Waller. New York: The Dryden Press, 1940. Pp. xi, 571. \$2.25.

Although uneven like most symposiums, this forceful book represents a useful balance between facts and interpretations, impressing the reader with the ramifications of modern war which has to date made the twentieth century the most bloody epoch of recorded history. After an analysis of war by the editor, Harry Elmer Barnes and W. C. Langsam discuss the World War and the Peace of Paris. Logically, under the effects of the first World War, Benjamin Higgins discusses economic warfare since 1918 while Frances Winwar discusses the arts. The volume also includes an account of the origins of the War of 1939, the rise of Communism and Fascism, the state system and economy in war time, propaganda, and public opinion. As an anthropologist, Ralph Linton closes with words of prophecy. This volume, coupled with de Wilde, Popper, and Clarke's *Handbook of the War* (Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939, \$1.50) for military details, are almost essential purchases for the school library. When a nazi picture book for children says:

What puffs and patters?
What clicks and clatters?
I know what, oh, what fun!
It's a lovely Gatling gun!

we can afford to ponder over this symposium.

R. H.

Mark Twain in Germany. By Edgar H. Hemminghaus. New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. ix, 170. \$2.25.

The United States should understand its impact abroad and the niche it occupies in foreign opinion. This excellent study of Mark Twain in Germany, the German readers' and critics' interest in him might well be perused by other than Twain collectors or devotees. Germany displayed a growing interest in America after 1776, almost a romantic enthusiasm for it. Perhaps German readers responded more quickly to Twain than did literary critics. Since 1875, when his *The Innocents Abroad* appeared in German dress, Twain, considered always a humorist specifically American, has had his ups and downs, but never complete neglect. After a post-1918 vogue, there becomes observable a diminution of interest. Dr. Hemminghaus suggests that even in Greater Germany today certain qualities such as "the fantastic and grotesque," "the wildly primitive," and the touch of melancholy may still bring Twain a market.

R. H.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Toward a Peaceful Pacific. By Douglas Horton. January 15, 1940, issue of *Social Action*, the Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Pp. 39. 15 cts.

A survey of the causes of the present Sino-Japanese conflict, America's stake in the East, and the outlook.

The Juvenile Court—A Community Concern. By Benedict S. Alper. February 15, 1940 issue of *Social Action*, the Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Pp. 39. 15 cts.

A description of the nature and causes of delinquency, the juvenile court and how it functions, and various features of the problem in this country.

Chain Stores—Pro and Con. By Helen Dallas. Public Affairs Pamphlets, no. 40 (1940), Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City. Pp. 31. 10 cts.

A study of mass distribution based on such data as those of the Federal Trade Commission, the Bureau of the Census, and the federal Department of Commerce. A readable discussion. Advantages and disadvantages of chain stores were pointed out, and a brief bibliography was appended.

Our Far Eastern Record; a Reference Digest on American Policy. New York: American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1940. Pp. 48. 25 cents.

Important official documents on the present status

of American policy and interest in the Far East, with statistical information on trade and data on public opinion.

America Holds the Balance in the Far East. By Robert W. Barnett. New York: American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1940. Pp. 44. 25 cents.

Why American policy may determine the destiny of the Pacific.

Democracy: A Reading List. Compiled by Benson Y. Landis. Chicago: American Library Association, 1940.

This indexed list will be very useful. Includes fiction and poetry.

Blueprint for the American Community. New York: The National Conference of Christians and Jews, 300 Fourth Avenue, 1940.

A new title in the Human Relations Pamphlets.

Child-Welfare Legislation, 1938. United States Children's Bureau, Bureau Publication No. 251. Washington: Supt. of Documents, 1939. 10 cents.

Can be use as basis for unit study.

New Homes for Old. Public Housing in Europe and America. By William V. Reed and Elizabeth Ogg. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1940. Headline Books No. 22. Pp. 112. Illustrated. 25 cents.

An excellent handbook which will capture student interest.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Course of American Democratic Thought. By Ralph Henry Gabriel. New York: The Ronald Press, 1940. Pp. xi, 452. \$4.00.

An intellectual history since 1815. Divided into six parts, Part VI being devoted to "the American democratic faith in an age of disillusionment and insecurity."

Mark Twain in Germany. By Edgar H. Hemminghaus. New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. ix, 170. \$2.25.

A well-written and thoroughly documented study of the remarkable popularity of Twain's writings in Germany. This sort of writing is as much a part of international history as of belles lettres.

Race, Language, and Culture. By Franz Boas. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xx, 647. Illustrated. \$5.00.

Argues that anthropology has bearing upon immediate problems. Collection of earlier writings.

Living Your Life. By C. C. Crawford, E. G. Cooley, and C. C. Trillingham. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1940. Pp. xxv, 450. Illustrated. \$1.56.

Group guidance in study, school life, and social living.

State and Local Government in Texas. By C. P. Patterson, S. B. McAlister, and G. C. Hester. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. ix, 586. \$2.50.

Presents all important phases of Texas. The authors contend that a proper training for Texas citizens requires an adequate presentation of such important activities as conservation and the state highway system.

Citizenship and Civic Affairs. By Harold Rugg. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940. Pp. ix, 610. Illustrated. \$1.88.

The discussion is enriched by the use of material from history as well as from the field of civics and government. More than half the book is devoted to government, one entire unit to public opinion. Book One: Community and National Life.

Migration and Social Welfare. By Philip E. Ryan. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1940. Pp. vi, 114. 50 cents.

An approach to the problem of the non-settled person in the community. The author was executive secretary of the Council on Interstate Migration.

Lords and Gentlemen. By Louise Hall Tharp. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. 188. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Tale of a courageous group which helped to found one of the New England colonies.

War in the Twentieth Century. Edited by Willard Waller. New York: The Dryden Press, 1940. Pp. xi, 571. \$2.25.

Informing and thought-provoking; maintains a balance between facts and interpretation. Chapters by various authors discuss such topics as the World War, propaganda and public opinion, and war and social institutions.

Prologue to War. By Elizabeth Wiskemann. New York: Oxford University Press, 1940. Pp. ix, 332. \$3.00.

An especially clear picture of tensions in Eastern and Southeastern Europe. Traces the nazi impact in that region.